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SeaWiFS Postlaunch Technical Report Series

Stanford B. Hooker and Elaine R. Firestone, Editors

Volume 13, The SeaWiFS Photometer Revision for Incident Surface Measurement (SeaPRISM) Field Commissioning

*Stanford B. Hooker, Giuseppe Zibordi, Jean-François Berthon, Sean W. Bailey, and
Christophe M. Pietras*

National Aeronautics and
Space Administration

Goddard Space Flight Center
Greenbelt, Maryland 20771

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SeaWiFS Postlaunch Technical Report Series

Stanford B. Hooker, Editor
NASA Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, Maryland

Elaine R. Firestone, Senior Technical Editor
SAIC General Sciences Corporation, Beltsville, Maryland

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Stanford B. Hooker
NASA Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, Maryland

Giuseppe Zibordi
Jean-François Berthon
JRC Marine Environment Unit, Ispra, Italy

Sean W. Bailey
Futuretech Corporation, Greenbelt, Maryland

Christophe M. Pietras
SAIC General Sciences Corporation, Beltsville, Maryland

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ABSTRACT

This report documents the scientific activities that took place at the *Acqua Alta* Oceanographic Tower (AAOT) in the northern Adriatic Sea off the coast of Italy from 2–6 August 1999. The ultimate objective of the field campaign was to evaluate the capabilities of a new instrument called the SeaWiFS Photometer Revision for Incident Surface Measurements (SeaPRISM). SeaPRISM is based on a CE-318 sun photometer made by CIMEL Electronique (Paris, France). The CE-318 is an automated, robotic system which measures the direct sun irradiance plus the sky radiance in the sun plane and in the almucantar plane. The data are transmitted over a satellite link, and this remote operation capability has made the device very useful for atmospheric measurements. The revision to the CE-318 that makes the instrument potentially useful for SeaWiFS calibration and validation activities is to include a capability for measuring the radiance leaving the sea surface in wavelengths suitable for the determination of chlorophyll *a* concentration. The initial evaluation of this new capability involved above- and in-water measurement protocols. An intercomparison of the water-leaving radiances derived from SeaPRISM and an in-water system showed the overall spectral agreement was approximately 8.6%, but the blue-green channels intercompared at the 5% level. A blue-green band ratio comparison was at the 4% level.

1. INTRODUCTION

The SeaWiFS Project has emphasized in-water calibration and validation exercises (Hooker and McClain 2000) and demonstrated a total uncertainty in the measurement of in-water apparent optical properties (AOPs) at approximately the 3% level (Hooker and Maritorena 2000). The majority of the measurements have been made in Case-1 waters during oceanographic cruises as part of the Atlantic Meridional Transect (AMT) Program (Aiken et al. 2000). AMT cruises occur twice a year on board the Royal Research Ship (RRS) *James Clark Ross* (JCR) as it transits between the United Kingdom and the Falkland Islands (approximately 100° of latitude and 75° of longitude). The cruise tracks cross a wide range of ecosystems and biophysical regimes, within which conditions vary from subpolar to tropical, and from eutrophic shelf seas and upwelling systems to oligotrophic mid-ocean gyres. Although the large diversity in oceanic regimes represents a significant sampling advantage for calibration and validation activities, the amount of time available for station work is limited (which is frequently the case for long cruises, because a large amount of time must be allocated for transiting).

The SeaWiFS Project also relies on the Marine Optical Buoy (MOBY) for calibration and validation data. Buoys are excellent platforms for the production of long time series and complement the space series provided by oceanographic cruises (like the AMT Program). MOBY is sited off the Hawaiian island of Lanai and uses multiple in-water sensors to provide spectral estimates of water-leaving radiance, $L_W(\lambda)$. Although bio-fouling is always a problem for autonomous in-water systems, MOBY is situated in very clear (Case-1) water and is visited regularly, so the submerged sensors can be cleaned. The big advantage of the MOBY system is it delivers data autonomously in between the servicing visits.

The Project receives time series data from a collaboration with the Joint Research Centre (JRC) which has been making monthly visits of approximately 5-days duration to the *Acqua Alta* Oceanographic Tower (AAOT) to collect atmospheric plus marine optical and biogeochemical measurements (Zibordi et al. 2000). Traditionally, water-leaving radiances at the site were derived from in-water measurements. More recently, above-water measurements of the sea surface were added to determine whether or not a continuously operating above-water system could be implemented at the AAOT. If this proves feasible, the autonomous measurement strengths of a buoy system could be duplicated without the problems associated with bio-fouling.

There are disadvantages with in-water techniques which are not present in above-water methods, e.g., the self shading of the instrument itself (Gordon and Ding 1992). Not surprisingly, the latter presents new problems that are not present in the former, so there is a danger of simply swapping one set of challenging problems for another. The possibility of taking data while underway, sampling in a shorter amount of time, or autonomously monitoring a location in between site visits, however, makes the above-water instruments too useful to be ignored. For coastal sites, like the AAOT, there is another possible advantage associated with above-water measurements. In these waters, particularly those dominated by sediment loading, there is a need for measurements of water-leaving radiance in the red part of the spectrum. The large attenuation of light in the near-infrared poses significant challenges for in-water measurements, whereas the above-water methods are not so disadvantaged.

The SeaWiFS Field Team has been incrementally engaging in above-water measurements with the objective of extracting the largest amount of validation data from both measurement types. The deployments involved were

called SeaWiFS Bio-Optical Algorithm Round-Robin (SeaBOARR) experiments, because the long-term objective is to evaluate the effects of the different measurement protocols on bio-optical algorithms. The SeaBOARR field campaigns have been concerned with collecting simultaneous above- and in-water radiometric measurements. The intercomparison goals for these deployments were to: a) use multiple surface glint correction methods to compute $L_W(\lambda)$ from above-water data; b) use different in-water profiling systems and analysis methods to compute $L_W(\lambda)$ (one making measurements at a fixed distance from the tower, 7.5 m, and the other at variable distances up to 29 m away); and c) compare the $L_W(\lambda)$ values estimated from the above- and in-water measurements.

SeaBOARR-98 took place on the AAOT (Hooker et al. 1999) and SeaBOARR-99 took place on the JCR during the AMT-8 cruise (Hooker and Lazin 2000). The primary reasons for selecting the AAOT for SeaBOARR-98 were the ongoing use of the tower by a group of optical oceanographers (JRC) and it can accommodate the simultaneous deployment of a large number of instruments. The other reasons were: a) its stability (towers do not pitch and roll like ships); b) the perturbative effects of the tower on the in-water light field were being studied and modeled, so a correction scheme for the in-water measurements was possible (Zibordi et al. 1999); and c) its proximity to a strong coastal front, so the water around the tower can be Case-1 or Case-2. The opportunity for sampling different water types within one field campaign was very appealing.

The experience acquired during the SeaBOARR campaigns reaffirmed the need for a low-cost, autonomous system for making above-water radiance measurements. A review of possible design concepts by the SeaWiFS Field Team resulted in the idea that a low-risk approach would be to adapt an existing automated sun photometer system to the problem. The SeaWiFS Photometer Revision for Incident Surface Measurements (SeaPRISM) is based on a CE-318 sun photometer, which is an automatic system that measures the direct sun irradiance plus the sky radiance in the sun and almucantar planes. The JRC worked with the manufacturer, CIMEL Electronique (Paris, France), to develop a capability for measuring the radiance leaving the sea surface after the sun and sky measurement sequences.

A prototype SeaPRISM was delivered in the summer of 1999; a team of scientists (Appendix A) was deployed to the AAOT shortly thereafter from 2–6 August 1999. The purpose of the campaign was to make above- and in-water radiometric measurements in support of two activities:

- a) Continue an ongoing time series of bio-optical measurements that are used by the Coastal Atmosphere and Sea Time Series (CoASTS) and the SeaWiFS Projects for algorithm validation and bio-optical research; and
- b) Collect a high quality data set of simultaneous above- and in-water radiometric measurements, along with a suite of bio-optical parameters for evaluating the capabilities of the SeaPRISM instrument.

2. INSTRUMENTATION

The AAOT is located in the northern Adriatic Sea (12.51°E, 45.31°N) approximately 15 km east of the city of Venice (Italy). The tower was built in 1970 and is operated by an institute of the *Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche* (CNR) in Venice. The water depth immediately below the tower is about 17 m and the composition of the nearby sea floor is primarily sand and silt. The tower is composed of four levels supported by four large pillars. Each level is approximately 7.2 m × 5.2 m in size with the exception of the lowest level which is 5.2 m × 5.2 m.

The first (lowest) tower level, about 4.5 m above the water, has an open grid deck and no facilities. The second level is approximately 7 m above the water and contains a portable scientific laboratory. At this level, a special open grid platform, 3.5 m wide, extends 6.5 m over the sea towards the southeast; the Wire-Stabilized Profiling Environmental Radiometer (WiSPER) package is deployed from this platform. Also located on this level is the water filtering and hydrography laboratory. The third deck contains the main laboratory, which is also the primary accommodations and work space. The fourth (uppermost) deck, about 13 m above the water, contains a wide variety of meteorological instruments and support facilities. A complete description of the AAOT is available in Hooker et al. (1999).

For the SeaPRISM field commissioning, WiSPER and four different radiometric systems were deployed on the AAOT:

- a) The JRC miniature NASA Environmental Sampling System (miniNESS),
- b) The SeaWiFS Underway Surface Acquisition System (SUnSAS),
- c) The new SeaPRISM instrument, and
- d) The Satellite Validation for Marine Biology and Aerosol Determination (SIMBAD) handheld radiometer.

Detailed descriptions of each of the sampling systems are given in Sects. 2.1–2.6, respectively, so only brief introductions are given here. The two in-water profilers were miniNESS and WiSPER; SUnSAS, SeaPRISM, and SIMBAD made above-water measurements.

The SUnSAS, WiSPER, and miniNESS instruments all use 7-channel ocean color radiance series 200 (OCR-200) sensors, as well as 7-channel ocean color irradiance series 200 (OCI-200) sensors. Both radiometers use 16-bit analog-to-digital (A/D) converters and are capable of detecting light over a four-decade range. A benefit of assembling (nearly) identical equipment from the participating investigators was the wavelengths and (10 nm) bandwidths for the different instruments were very similar. A summary

† National Research Council.

Table 1. Channel numbers (λ_i) and center wavelengths (in nanometers) for the radiometers used with the radiometric sampling systems. The Satlantic sensors are given with their individual sensor codes, which are formed from a one-letter designator for the type of sensor, plus a three-digit serial number (S/N). The M099 WiSPER reference was used with miniNESS, SUnSAS, and WiSPER. All of the WiSPER, miniNESS, and SUnSAS sensors have 10 nm bandwidths. The SeaPRISM and SIMBAD bandwidths are given in parentheses (the former are nominal values and did not have filters installed for channels 6 and 7).

λ_i	WiSPER				miniNESS			SUnSAS		Sun Photometers	
	R046	I071	I109	M099	R067	I097	I098	T028	T068	SeaPRISM	SIMBAD
1	412.3	412.4	412.5	411.5	412.5	412.3	412.4	412.7	412.3	1018 (10)	442.7 (11.3)
2	442.8	443.5	442.2	442.8	442.2	442.1	443.5	443.1	442.8	870 (10)	492.1 (10.5)
3	490.5	490.6	490.7	489.9	490.0	490.5	490.8	489.5	490.1	668 (10)	562.3 (8.5)
4	510.8	509.1	509.8	510.3	510.3	510.3	509.9	510.1	510.3	440 (10)	672.1 (9.7)
5	554.9	555.9	554.7	554.5	554.5	554.5	554.7	554.8	555.7	501 (10)	872.3 (12.8)
6	665.8	665.4	664.8	664.8	665.4	665.7	664.9	780.6	780.1		
7	683.9	682.1	683.2	683.2	684.0	683.8	683.2	865.4	864.3		
8										936 (10)	

of the radiometer wavelengths and their sensor codes is given in Table 1.

The WiSPER system measured upwelled irradiance and radiance plus downward irradiance as a function of depth, $E_u(z, \lambda)$, $L_u(z, \lambda)$, and $E_d(z, \lambda)$, respectively. A separate sensor measured the total solar irradiance (the direct plus the indirect or diffuse components) just above the sea surface, $E_d(0^+, \lambda)$. An occulter or *lollipop* was periodically used at the conclusion of some casts to block the direct solar irradiance, so the indirect (or diffuse) component, $E_i(0^+, \lambda)$, could be measured. WiSPER was slowly winched up and down the water column between two taught wires, so it had no need for tilt sensors.

The miniNESS profiler makes the same measurements as WiSPER, $E_u(z)$, $L_u(z)$, and $E_d(z)$, except it is deployed as a tethered, free-fall package. Internal tilt sensors quantify the vertical orientation (φ) of the profiler as it falls through the water. It is a variant of the Low-Cost NASA Environmental Sampling System (LoCNESS) and is built from the same modular components as WiSPER: a DATA-100 (with 16-bit A/D converters) for power and telemetry, and 7-channel OCR-200 and OCI-200 sensors. The main difference between LoCNESS and miniNESS is the former has the light sensors mounted at the ends of the profiler close to the centerline of the rocket-shaped body, whereas the latter has the E_d and L_u sensors mounted on the fins and the E_u sensor is mounted at the end of an extension bracket on the nose.

The SUnSAS instruments measured the sky (or indirect) radiance reaching the sea surface, $L_i(0^+)$, and the (total) radiance right above the sea surface, $L_T(0^+)$. The latter is composed of three terms: the radiance leaving the sea surface from below (the so-called water-leaving radiance), the direct sunlight reflecting off the surface (the so-called sun glint), and the skylight reflecting off the surface (the so-called sky glint). A separate sensor measured

$E_d(0^+)$ which, in this case, was the same sensor used with miniNESS (the output of the irradiance sensor was sent to both data acquisition systems).

SeaPRISM is an eight-channel radiometric system made by CIMEL Electronique (Paris, France). The CE-318 is an automated, robotic system that measures the direct sun irradiance plus the sky radiance in the sun and almucantar planes. The data are transmitted over a satellite link, and this remote operation capability has made the device very useful for atmospheric measurements. The revision to the CE-318 that makes the instrument potentially useful for SeaWiFS calibration and validation activities is to include a capability for measuring the radiance leaving the sea surface in wavelengths suitable for the determination of chlorophyll *a* concentration (C_a). Depending on the level of success achieved with the field commissioning, the current prototype will be validated in an extended (one year) deployment to determine the longer term capabilities of the instrument.

SIMBAD is a five-channel, handheld radiometer designed and manufactured by the *Laboratoire d'Optique Atmosphérique* (Lille, France). It is both an above-water radiometer and a sun photometer. It can measure water-leaving radiance in the sea-viewing mode and aerosol optical thickness in the sun-viewing mode. The same optics—filters, detectors, and 3° full-angle field of view (FOV)—are used in both measurement modes with each mode having a separate electronic gain. A vertical polarizer is used to reduce the reflected skylight and glint from the sea surface reflectance measurements. The polarizer remains in place during the sun measurements, but because the direct radiation is not polarized, the sun measurements are still accurate.

A summary of each sensor system, including their sensor types, primary physical measurements, and sensor codes, is given in Table 2. SeaPRISM and SIMBAD were

the only integrated (all-in-one) systems using the same optics for each type of measurement—the other systems were built up from modular components involving multiple sensor types.

Table 2. A summary of the radiometers used during the SeaPRISM field test along with their primary physical measurement (in terms of their vertical sampling), their spectral resolution (λ_5 means 5 channels, λ_6 means 6 channels, and λ_7 means 7 channels), and their sensor codes. The M099 sensor was periodically occulted to measure $E_i(0^+, \lambda_7)$. The ϕ coordinate is the solar azimuth angle and ϑ is the radiometer pointing angle with respect to the vertical axis, z .

System	Sensor	Measurement	Code
WiSPER	OCR-200	$L_u(z, \lambda_7)$	R046
	OCI-200	$E_d(z, \lambda_7)$	I071
	OCI-200	$E_u(z, \lambda_7)$	I109
	OCI-200	$E_d(0^+, \lambda_7)$	M099
miniNESS	OCR-200	$L_u(z, \lambda_7)$	R067
	OCI-200	$E_d(z, \lambda_7)$	I097
	OCI-200	$E_u(z, \lambda_7)$	I098
	OCI-200	$E_d(0^+, \lambda_7)$	M099
SUNSAS	OCR-200	$L_i(0^+, \lambda_7)$	T068
	OCR-200	$L_T(0^+, \lambda_7)$	T028
	OCI-200	$E_d(0^+, \lambda_7)$	M099
	DIR-10	ϑ, ϕ	D002
SeaPRISM	CE-318	$E(0^+, \lambda_6)^\dagger$	
	CE-318	$L_i(0^+, \lambda_6)^\dagger$	
	CE-318	$L_T(0^+, \lambda_6)^\dagger$	
SIMBAD	SIMBAD	$E(0^+, \lambda_5)$	
	SIMBAD	$L_T(0^+, \lambda_5)$	

† The operational unit will have 8 wavelengths (λ_8).

The basic data sampling activity involved collecting data from the above- and in-water instruments as simultaneously as possible, so handheld radios were used to coordinate the beginning and ending of sampling intervals. The main synchronization of the sampling was between the above-water instruments, because these systems were sufficiently similar or flexible to make this possible. The in-water systems were simply used as rapidly as possible to ensure good overlap with the above-water data. The basic data collection differences between the various sampling systems were the time required to complete a cast and the sampling rate.

Although it would have been preferable to have all of the instruments sample the smallest patch of water possible, space limitations on the tower did not permit this. The SUNSAS and SeaPRISM instruments had to be mounted on the topmost deck, which had a number of superstructure obstacles (wind generator, antenna masts, etc.), so the southwest side was selected to minimize any negative effects on the light measurements. The SIMBAD instrument

was used in close proximity to SUNSAS and SeaPRISM to ensure the three above-water systems were sampling approximately the same water.

In addition to paying close attention to the optimal viewing capabilities of each instrument system, some instruments were equipped with sensors that measured their pointing angles. SUNSAS, for example, had an external module that measured the vertical (two-axis) tilts and horizontal (compass) pointing of the radiometers (the so-called DIR-10 unit); miniNESS had internal sensors that measured the vertical (two-axis) tilts of the radiometers, and SIMBAD had a combination light and sensor system to visually indicate when the radiometer was correctly pointed (at 45° with respect to nadir). A generalized coordinate system for these pointing systems is given in Fig. 1.

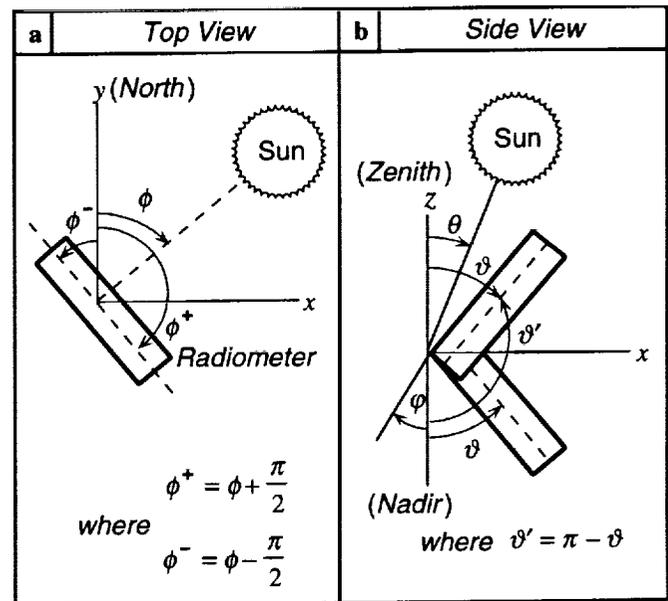


Fig. 1. The coordinate systems used for instrument pointing: **a)** looking down from above (the z -axis is out of the page), and **b)** looking from the side (the y -axis is out of the page). The ϕ coordinate is the solar azimuth angle, θ is the solar zenith angle, and ϑ is the radiometer pointing angle with respect to the vertical axis, z . The perturbation (or tilt) in vertical alignment, which can change the pointing angles, is given by ϕ .

Note that ϕ is measured with respect to an arbitrary reference, in this case due north, and ϑ is measured with respect to nadir (the direction pointing straight down to the sea surface). The angle ϑ' corresponds to the angle ϑ measured with respect to the zenith (the direction pointing straight up from the sea surface). To keep the pointing nomenclature compact, the angle the radiometer is pointed with respect to the sun is considered to be ϕ' , and in most cases, this was perpendicular to the sun plane: $\phi' = \phi \pm 90^\circ$ (i.e., ϕ' was usually set to ϕ^+ or ϕ^-)

In addition to the above- and in-water optical measurements, a variety of other data were collected to help

characterize the optical properties of the site during the field campaign:

1. Seawater temperature and salinity with a conductivity, temperature, and depth (CTD) sensor, plus tide level;
2. Seawater attenuation and absorption profiles at nine wavelengths by AC-9 measurements;
3. Pigment analyses using the high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) technique;
4. Direct sun irradiance and sky radiance measurements by CE-318 measurements;
5. *In vivo* spectral absorption of particulate matter (PM) and colored dissolved organic matter (CDOM) through spectrophotometric techniques;
6. Atmospheric pressure, humidity, and temperature, plus wind speed and direction; and
7. Total suspended matter (TSM) through gravimetric filter analysis.

The relative deployment locations of the various optical systems on the AAOT are shown in Fig. 2.

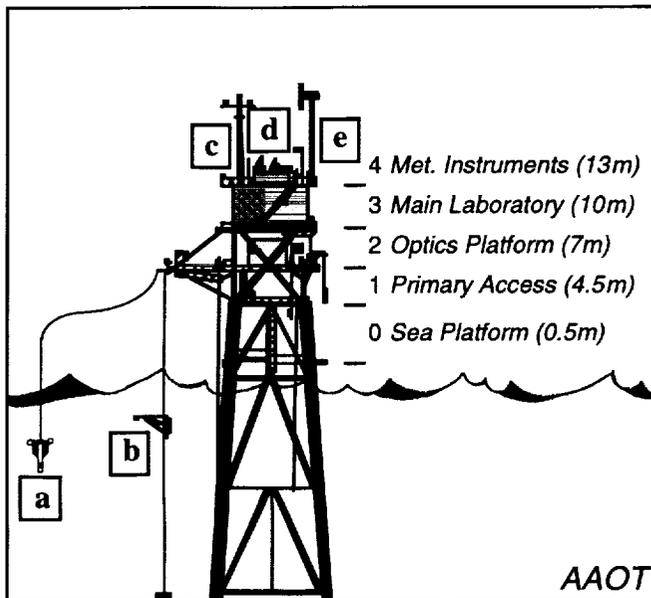


Fig. 2. The AAOT showing the mounting locations of the radiometric instruments: a) miniNESS (the irradiance reference sensor for miniNESS and SeaSAS was deployed on a mast located on the fourth deck), a) miniNESS, b) WiSPER, c) SIMBAD, d) SUNSAS, and e) SeaPRISM. The different levels are shown on the right with their heights above the water.

2.1 miniNESS

The miniNESS profiler is a tethered free-falling instrument. It is a variant of the LoCNESS profiler first used on AMT cruises (Robins et al. 1996). An in-air irradiance sensor (M099) measured the incident solar irradiance just

above the sea surface, $E_d(0^+, \lambda)$ which was periodically occulted to provide $E_i(0^+, \lambda)$ data. The irradiance sensor was packaged with a DATA-100 module that converted the analog output of the OCI-200 radiometer to RS-485 serial communications. The sensor package was mounted on a mast on the topmost tower deck (eastern corner). The height and location of the mast ensured none of the tower's superstructure shadowed the sensor under almost all illumination conditions. A schematic of the instruments used with the miniNESS profiler is given in Fig. 3.

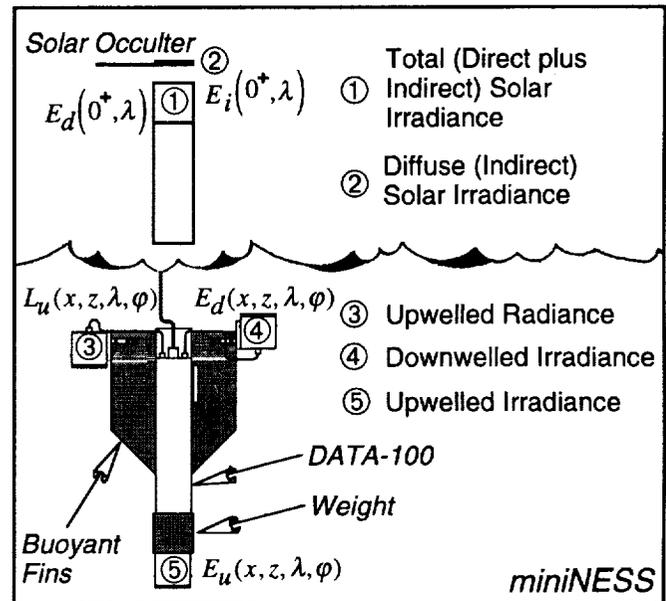


Fig. 3. A schematic of the miniNESS profiler. The solar irradiance data were provided by the WiSPER reference.

The free-fall aspects of the miniNESS design are derived from the LoCNESS profiler which was built out of modular, low-cost components: a DATA-100 (with 16-bit A/D converters) for power and telemetry, and 7-channel OCR-200 and OCI-200 sensors. In the LoCNESS configuration, the DATA-100 and the two light sensors are connected in line using extension brackets, with the OCR-200 at the nose, and the OCI-200 at the tail. The addition of weight to the nose and buoyant (foam) fins to a tail bracket produces a rocket-shaped package that falls through the water with minimum tilts (less than 2°). The power and telemetry cable extends through the FOV of the irradiance sensor, but the small diameter of the cable (7 mm) minimizes any negative effects on the measured light field.

The LoCNESS profiler can also be built with the Three-Headed Optical Recorder (THOR) option, in which case an adapter plate is used on the nose to permit the mounting of two sensors rather than one: the usual $L_u(z, \lambda)$ sensor plus an additional $E_u(z, \lambda)$ sensor. The LoCNESS profiler is 1.78 m long with the light sensors separated by the DATA-100 and the extension brackets. This is not an optimal configuration for the shallow, Case-2 water frequently

encountered at the AAOT site, so a more compact (0.73 m long) profiler was produced by dispensing with the extension brackets, mounting a radiance sensor (R067) on one fin, and an irradiance sensor (I097) on the fin opposite the radiance sensor. As with LoCNESS, the light sensors send their analog signals to a DATA-100 (S/N 8), which digitizes them (16 bits) and converts the counts to RS-485 serial communications.

Mounting light sensors on the fins destabilizes the profiler (although, tilts less than 2° were regularly achieved on AMT cruises by carefully trimming the profiler with lead weight), and it makes the L_u sensor more susceptible to shading. This problem was minimized by choosing where the mechanical termination was with respect to the sensors and the sun. In general, the two sensor fins, which are 180° apart, will align perpendicular to the mechanical termination when the cable is pulled in to bring the profiler to the surface (before a profile). To minimize L_u sensor shading, all that is required is to choose which of the other two fins should be used for the mechanical termination, so the L_u sensor aligns towards the sun. A picture of miniNESS on the AAOT deployment platform is shown in Fig. 4.

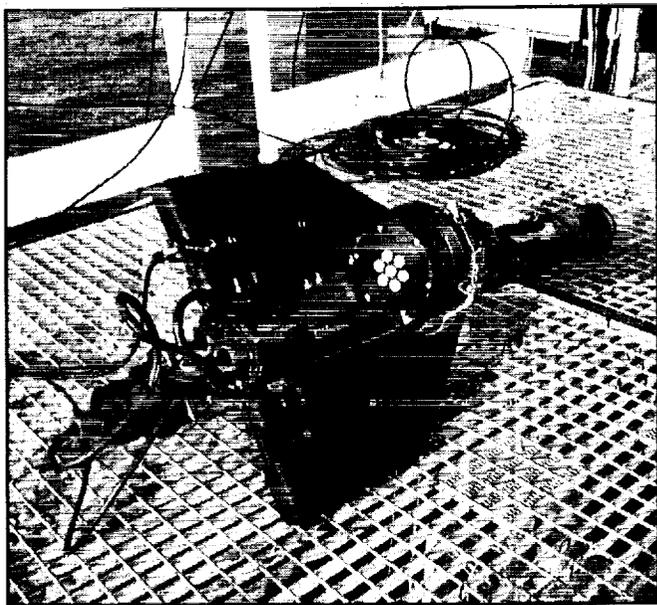


Fig. 4. A picture of the miniNESS profiler on the AAOT deployment platform. Note, the platform floor is an open grid which helps reduce the shading effects of the tower, but does not eliminate it.

The experimental setup for deploying miniNESS began with siting a marker buoy approximately 90 m from the southeast tower leg, and displaced approximately 2 m to the side of the WiSPER instrument. A taut line was then attached from the uppermost deck of the tower to the buoy anchor, and a pulley was attached at the point where the line intersected the sea surface (about 30 m from the tower). Another pulley was mounted on the southeast corner of the tower near the sea surface, and a closed loop

of line with marks on it every 1 m was strung between the pulleys. The miniNESS profiler, was moved to a selected distance from the tower leg by pulling on the closed loop of line until the desired number of cable marks between the ring's position and the tower leg was achieved.

The versatility of measuring three components of the light field with the THOR configuration for LoCNESS is also possible with the JRC miniNESS, because of the addition of an E_u (I098) sensor on the nose of the profiler. The miniNESS profiler is sufficiently easy to handle that it can be deployed by one person. Under normal circumstances, the handler keeps a few coils of the power and telemetry cable in the water, so the profiler can fall freely through the water column; once the desired depth has been reached, the cast is terminated, and the profiler is pulled back to the surface. A cable block, which could not pass through the cable ring, was used to prevent the profiler from going deeper than 15 m and accidentally impacting the sea floor.

The RS-485 signals from the two DATA-100 units were combined in a Satlantic deck box and converted to RS-232 communications for computer logging. The deck box also provided computer-controlled power for the sensors and was designed to avoid any damage due to improper power-up sequences over varying cable lengths or cable faults.

2.2 WiSPER

The WiSPER system is permanently installed on the AAOT and was operated from the 6.5 m platform extension on the second level. WiSPER used a custom-built profiling rig, and the positioning of the equipment on the rig ensured the radiometers did not view any part of the mechanical supports (which were all painted black). The rigidity and stability of the rig was carefully considered, so there was no need for tilt or roll sensors. WiSPER uses the same kind of optical sensors as miniNESS: one OCI-200 (I071) to measure $E_d(z, \lambda)$, one OCI-200 (I109) to measure $E_u(z, \lambda)$, and one OCR-200 (R046) to measure $L_u(z, \lambda)$. Two taut wires, anchored between the tower and a weight on the sea bottom, prevented the movement of the rig out of the vertical plane defined by the wires.

The WiSPER optical sensors were mounted on a retractable boom, which put them approximately 1 m away from the main part of the frame and the ancillary instruments (the AC-9, DATA-100, etc.). Once deployed, the boom placed the light sensors about 7.5 m from the nearest tower leg (the boom, as well as the entire deployment frame, could be raised to permit easy access to all of the sensors and ancillary equipment). The narrow geometry of the rig was designed to provide a minimal optical cross section. The FOV of the irradiance sensor was obstructed by the power and telemetry cable, as well as the stabilization wires, but all of these had very small cross sections and the cables were more than 1 m away from the sensors, so any negative effects were minimized.

A DATA-100 (S/N 5) provided the A/D and telemetry capability for the WiSPER light sensors. The equipment

was powered directly from 12V lead-acid batteries which are stored and kept charged on the tower. WiSPER was raised and lowered from the southeastern side of the tower by an electrical winch, although, the power and telemetry cables were spooled out and taken in by hand (an easy exercise because of the shallow water depth). The typical speed of the winch was approximately 0.1 m s^{-1} , so the vertical sampling resolution of the system was very good. A generalized schematic of what WiSPER measured is presented in Fig. 5, and a picture of the WiSPER system being deployed is shown in Fig. 6.

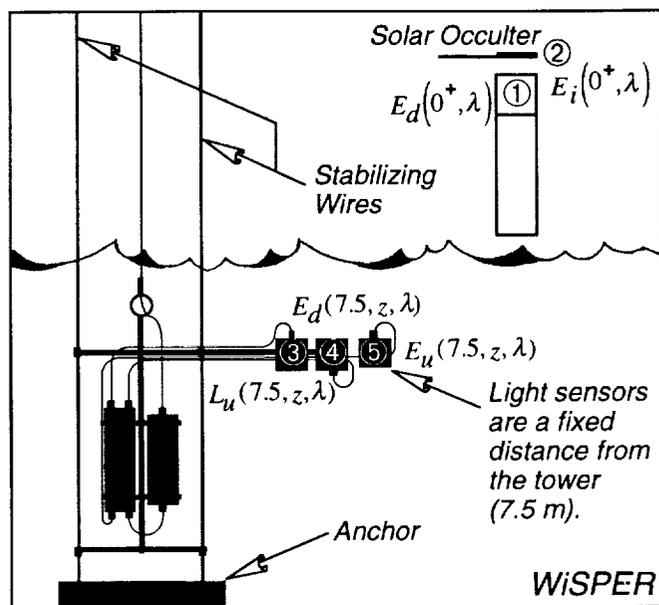


Fig. 5. A schematic of the WiSPER system. At the conclusion of the in-water sampling, the solar irradiance, $E_d(0^+, \lambda)$, sensor was occulted, so $E_i(0^+, \lambda)$ data could be collected.

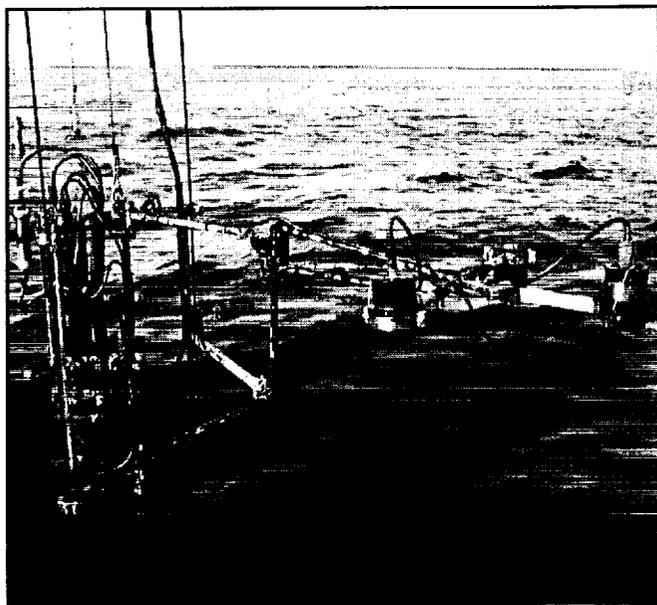


Fig. 6. A picture of the WiSPER system immediately before being lowered into the sea.

During most stations on the AAOT, at least one pair of down-and-up WiSPER profiles are made each time a measurement sequence is initiated. For the SeaPRISM field commissioning, multiple optical profiles were made to ensure the maximum number of overlapping measurements with the above-water systems. The WiSPER frame also contained an AC-9, which was logged simultaneously with the light sensors on personal computers (PCs) using software supplied by the manufacturers.

The instrument self-shading correction of the in-water WiSPER data required seawater absorption, $a(\lambda)$, data and measurements of $E_i(0^+, \lambda)$ collected by periodically occulting the solar irradiance sensor. Both types of data were needed to apply the Gordon and Ding (1992) correction scheme as parameterized as a function the sun zenith angle by Zibordi and Ferrari (1995), and further parameterized by the size of the sensor by Mueller and Austin (1995).

A field campaign was performed from 3–21 July 1997, to estimate the shading effect induced on the in-water optical measurements by the AAOT (Doyle and Zibordi 1998). Sequences of downward irradiance and upwelling radiance profiles were collected at varying distances from the tower to evaluate the tower-shading effects as a function of the deployment distance. The tower-shading field data, as well as results from a Monte Carlo model, indicated the shading effect at 555 nm during clear-sky conditions was negligible for both downward irradiances and upwelling radiances at deployment distances greater than 15 m and 20 m, respectively.

At closer distances to the tower, for example at the 7.5 m deployment distance regularly used for the collection of WiSPER data, the shading effect was significant: at 555 nm during clear-sky conditions and a relatively low sun zenith angle of 22° , the shading effect was approximately 2% for downward irradiance and about 8% for upwelling radiance. These large effects indicated a correction method was needed for in-water optical data collected near the tower, if the 5% uncertainty objectives of the SeaWiFS Project were to be achieved. Consequently, a correction method based on Monte Carlo simulations was formulated (Zibordi et al. 1999).

2.3 SUnSAS

The SUnSAS data acquisition frame is a compact instrument mounting system wherein the light sensors are mounted on two plates, one large and one small, which can be tilted to the desired nadir and zenith angles. The entire platform can be rotated 360° in the azimuthal plane, and a band, marked in 2° and 5° increments, allows for a precise positioning of the frame with respect to the sun. For the SeaPRISM field commissioning, the mounting plates were mechanically secured at the desired viewing angles using aluminum wedges cut at the appropriate angles (this ensured excellent repeatability whenever the viewing angles were changed).

The large mounting plate was designed to accommodate the downward-viewing light sensor (T028) that measured $L_T(\lambda)$, and the small plate was designed for a solitary OCR-200 sensor (T068) that was always pointed upwards to measure $L_i(\lambda)$. Although the azimuth angle was varied to address a variety of experimental objectives, the majority of the data were collected for $\phi' = \phi \pm 90^\circ$. The nadir and zenith viewing angles varied between $\vartheta = 30, 40, \text{ and } 45^\circ$. The SUnSAS frame included a square aperture situated within the FOV of the sea surface sensor. The aperture was designed so a plaque, usually gray, could be inserted before (or after) each surface-viewing sequence (the plaque was not used during the SeaPRISM field commissioning). The miniNESS in-air irradiance sensor was used to measure the total solar irradiance (M099). A generalized schematic of what SUnSAS measured is shown in Fig. 7.

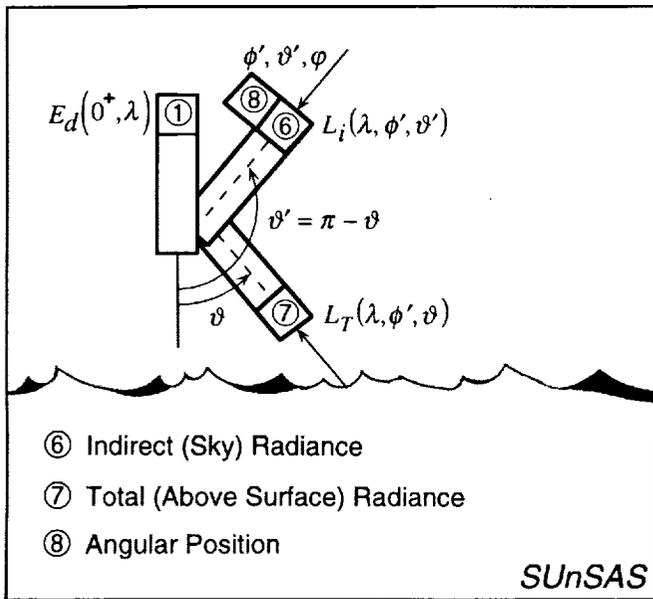


Fig. 7. A schematic of the SUnSAS instruments. The solar irradiance measurements were provided by the miniNESS reference.

The radiometers used with SUnSAS were connected in a modular fashion. The T028 sensor was integral to a DATA-100, whereas, the T068 sensor was cabled to a separate DATA-100, which was also cabled to the DIR-10. All of the sensors were powered by the same deck box, so the sensors took and reported data simultaneously (via RS-485 serial communications). As with miniNESS, the RS-485 signals from the two DATA-100 units were combined in the deck box and converted to RS-232 communications for computer logging. The RS-232 data were logged on a Macintosh PowerBook computer using software developed at the University of Miami Rosenstiel School for Marine and Atmospheric Science (RSMAS) and the SeaWiFS Project. A side view of SUnSAS deployed on the topmost platform of the AAOT is shown in Fig. 8.

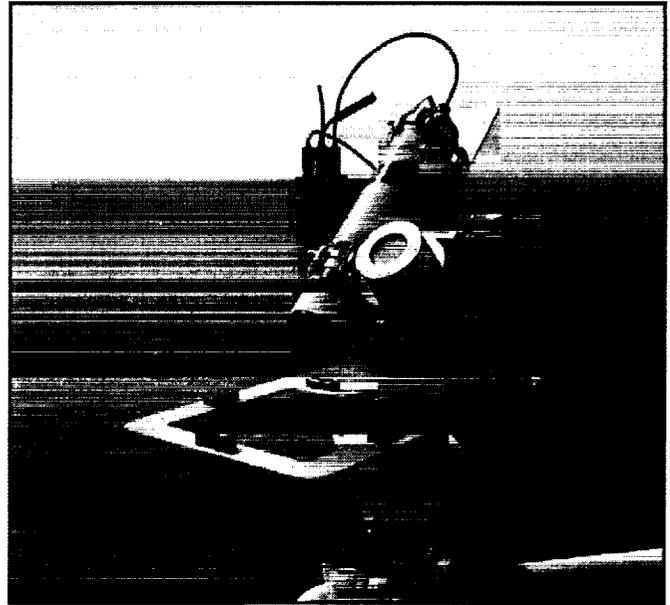


Fig. 8. A picture of the SUnSAS frame on the topmost platform of the AAOT showing the square aperture for plaque measurements (not made during the SeaPRISM commissioning) and the two radiometers pointed towards the sea and sky. The cylinder in the background is the DIR-10.

The two data streams (above- and in-water measurements) were time stamped and recorded to disk simultaneously. The data were stored as American Standard Code for Information Interchange (ASCII), tab-delimited (spreadsheet) files, so they could be viewed easily. The operator controlled the logging and display of the data as a function of the acquisition activity: dark data (caps on the radiometers), sea and sky viewing, etc. The initiation of the execution mode automatically set the file name and file headers, as well as the timed termination of the data acquisition. All of the telemetry channels were displayed and visualized in real time.

2.4 SIMBAD

SIMBAD is a handheld radiometric package that is powered by an internal rechargeable battery with a 6 h lifetime†. An external global positioning system (GPS) sensor is provided and connected to the radiometer to supply location information for the collected data. Temperature and viewing angles (yaw, pitch, and roll) are also acquired during the measurement sequences from internal sensors. The yaw sensor did not work properly during the SeaPRISM commissioning, so a handheld digital compass was used to point the instrument properly with respect to the sun.

† A complete description of SIMBAD and its capabilities are available at <http://genius.ucsd.edu/~simbad/>.

SIMBAD makes two types of environmental measurements: during the sun-viewing mode, the direct solar irradiance, $E(\lambda, \phi, \theta)$, is measured, and during the sea-viewing mode $L_T(\lambda, \phi \pm 135^\circ, 45^\circ)$ is measured. The sun and sea surface data are collected and stored internally before they are downloaded in a computer communications mode. Five spectral bands centered at approximately 443, 492, 562, 672, and 872 nm are used in the two normal collection modes. A schematic of what SIMBAD measured is shown in Fig. 9.

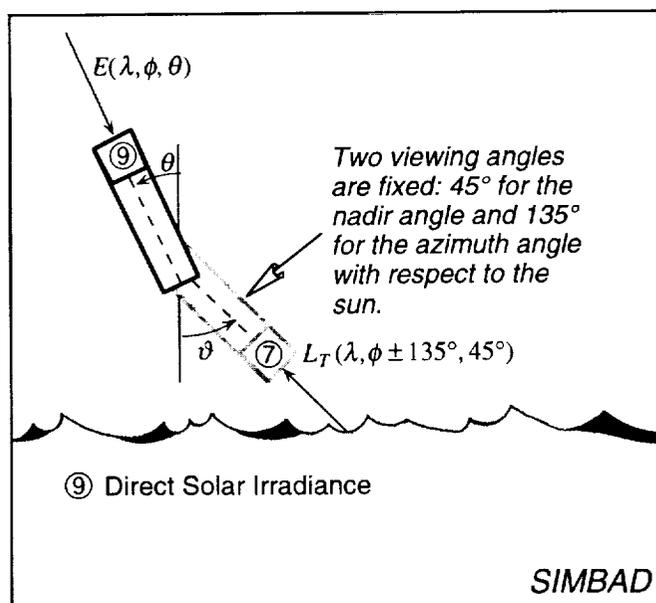


Fig. 9. A schematic of the SIMBAD system. The same instrument is used to make the $E(\lambda)$ and the $L_T(\lambda)$ measurements (so the latter is shown stippled).

A special mode of operation is designed to measure the dark or bias voltages at the detectors when they are not illuminated. Dark voltages need to be collected before and after each sea- and sun-viewing measurement. Additional modes exist for instrument calibration and computer downloads, and the user manually selects the desired mode. It takes 10s to collect a measurement in the sun- and sea-viewing modes, whereas it takes 20s in the dark and calibration modes.

SIMBAD operates at 10 Hz, and for reflectance measurements, all 100 samples during the 10s sampling interval are recorded. To minimize sun-pointing errors on a moving platform during sun photometry measurements, only the highest radiances measured during each second of the 10s sampling interval are recorded. During dark mode measurements, 10 records are stored for each electronic gain; each dark record is the average of the data collected during the 1s measurement interval. A picture of SIMBAD being used on the topmost platform of the AAOT is shown in Fig. 10.



Fig. 10. A picture of the handheld SIMBAD instrument being used on the topmost platform of the AAOT (note the SUNAS instrument in the background).

2.5 SeaPRISM

The CE-318 sun photometer is a fully autonomous system operating on batteries that are kept charged with solar panels. A large number of CE-318 sun photometers have been used successfully as part of the Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET) with many deployed in remote (island) locations (Holben et al. 1998). In-water moored systems based on buoys, are the traditional platform for the deployment of autonomous oceanographic measurements. Offshore platforms capable of accommodating above-water instruments are ubiquitous features of the coastal environment and offer significant advantages over a buoy:

- A reduction in the vulnerability of the sensors (the structure, and thus the entire sensor system, is not easily harmed by recreational or commercial activities);
- A simplification in the powering of the equipment (many offshore structures have power systems already installed);
- An increase in the pointing stability of the sensors (the sensors are not subjected to the ocean wave field);
- An almost complete reduction in the fouling of the optical surfaces (the primary source of fouling is wind-blown particles); and
- A simplification in maintaining and cleaning the equipment (most offshore structures provide easy access for authorized personnel).

The SeaPRISM configuration is the same as the standard instrument except an additional sea-viewing capability was added to the usual sun- and sky-viewing modes.

SeaPRISM data were collected during the three acquisition scenarios using two different collimators: sun (sun collimator), sky (sky collimator), and sea (sky collimator). During the sun-viewing mode $E(\lambda, \phi, \theta)$ was measured for the retrieval of aerosol optical thickness; during the sky-viewing mode, the sky radiance, $L_i(\lambda)$, was measured in a wide range of angles in the almucantar and sun planes for the retrieval of the aerosol scattering phase function; and during the sea-viewing mode, $L_i(\lambda, \phi', \vartheta')$ and the total radiance immediately above the sea surface, $L_T(\lambda, \phi', \vartheta)$, were measured for estimating water-leaving radiance.

The sea-viewing measurements were made at pointing angles suitable for the estimation of water-leaving radiances: $\vartheta = 30, 40, \text{ and } 45^\circ$; $\vartheta' = 150, 140, \text{ and } 135^\circ$; and $\phi' = \phi^+$ and $\phi' = \phi^-$. In the standard instrument, the measurement gains are set and defined in firmware. The same is true for the sea-viewing measurement, because the sea and sky radiances are performed using the same gains, but different gains can be used for sea and sky. During each sea-viewing sequence, three values of $L_i(\lambda)$ or $L_T(\lambda)$, depending on the pointing angle, were sequentially collected at each λ for each successive ϑ at $\phi' = \phi^+$ and then $\phi' = \phi^-$. A schematic of what SeaPRISM measured is shown in Fig. 11.

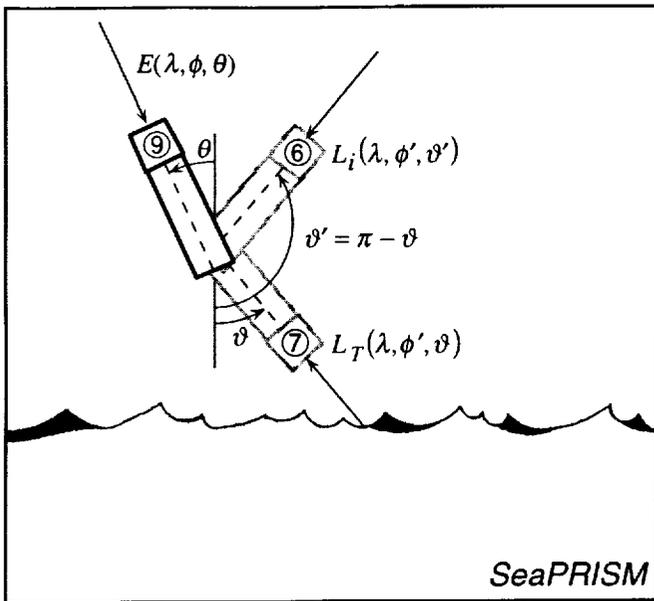


Fig. 11. A schematic of the SeaPRISM system. The same instrument is used to make the $E(\lambda)$, $L_i(\lambda)$, and $L_T(\lambda)$ measurements (the latter two are shown stippled).

To simplify the command structure for implementing the water-leaving radiance protocol in the instrument, the sea-viewing measurement began at $\vartheta = 30^\circ$, and continued through $\vartheta = 40, 45, 135, 140, 150, 210, 220, 225, 315, 320,$ and 330° . The first pair of three measurements give $L_T(\lambda)$ and $L_i(\lambda)$, respectively, at $\phi' = \phi^+$; and the last pair of three measurements give $L_i(\lambda)$ and $L_T(\lambda)$, respectively,

at $\phi' = \phi^-$. A sea-viewing measurement sequence lasted approximately 3 min. Dark measurements were taken by capping the entrance aperture of the radiometer (normally these data would be collected using the so-called *field stop* on the filter wheel).

Although the standard CE-318 instrument telemeters the data over a satellite link, the prototype used during the field commissioning did not have this capability—all of the data were downloaded after acquisition to a PC from the central processing unit using a serial interface. The data were subsequently processed using a processing package developed at the JRC. A picture of SeaPRISM during a sea-viewing measurement is shown in Fig. 12.

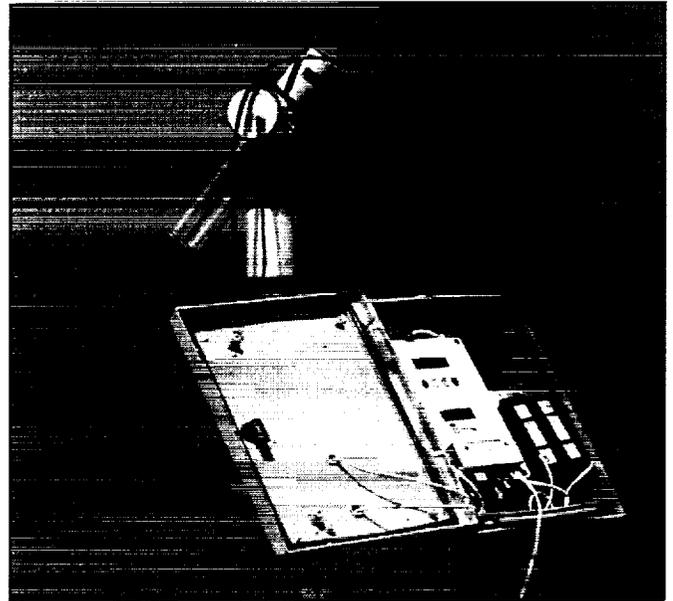


Fig. 12. The SeaPRISM instrument being used on the topmost platform of the AAOT. The collimators are the two long tubes pointed towards the sea, and the box in the foreground contains the central processing unit and rechargeable batteries.

3. IN-WATER METHODS

The sampling procedures used with the in-water systems were a direct consequence of the various acquisition sequences and measurement protocols associated with each instrument, coupled with the mixture of the investigative objectives and the analysis procedures. For the purposes of defining and then categorizing the various activities involved, a *cast* was defined as either an acquisition sequence of the sky (and sun if applicable) plus the sea surface from the above-water instruments, or a vertical profile of the water column from the in-water instruments. An *experiment* was defined as a separate series of casts collected to investigate a specific investigative objective, e.g., variable nadir or zenith viewing angle, variable azimuthal angle with respect to the sun plane, etc.

The in-water analysis techniques commonly in use are based primarily on the Smith and Baker (1984) method.

The ultimate purpose of the in-water approach is to extrapolate the measured subsurface properties up to, and then through, the sea surface interface. Vertical sampling close to the sea surface, like that which can be achieved with the WiSPER system, ensures the needed amount of data to establish confidence in the extrapolation interval and procedure. The steps involved are as follows:

1. Compute K_u , the diffuse attenuation coefficient calculated from $L_u(z, \lambda)$ profiles, as the local slope of $\ln [L_u(z, \lambda)]$ in a depth interval of a few meters centered on depth z_0 (Smith and Baker 1984 and 1986):

$$\ln [L_u(z, \lambda)] = \ln [L_u(z_0, \lambda)] - K_u(z_0, \lambda)\delta z, \quad (1)$$

where $\delta z = z - z_0$. The unknowns, $\ln [L_u(z_0, \lambda)]$ and $K_u(z_0, \lambda)$, are determined as the intercept and slope of a least-squares linear regression to the measured $\ln [L_u(z, \lambda)]$ data within the depth interval $z_0 - \Delta z \leq z < z_0 + \Delta z$. The half interval Δz is somewhat arbitrary, although, $2\Delta z \approx 2-5$ m for WiSPER data.

2. Extrapolate $L_u(z_0, \lambda)$ up to the surface using

$$L_u(0^-, \lambda) = L_u(z_0, \lambda) \exp [z_0 K_u(z_0, \lambda)]. \quad (2)$$

3. Transmit $L_u(0^-, \lambda)$ through the sea surface according to Austin (1974) to derive the in-water $L_w(\lambda)$ value:

$$\bar{L}_w(\lambda) = \frac{1 - \rho(\lambda, \vartheta)}{n_w^2(\lambda)} L_u(0^-, \lambda), \quad (3)$$

where $\rho(\lambda, \vartheta)$ is the Fresnel surface reflectance and $n_w(\lambda)$ is the refractive index of seawater (all the in-water instruments use nadir-viewing radiance sensors for which $\vartheta = 0^\circ$).

Austin (1980) noted the $(1 - \rho(\lambda, \vartheta))n_w^{-2}(\lambda)$ expression can be replaced by a constant, because the wavelength dependence of the variables is very weak. The coefficient 0.54 has been shown to be the most appropriate for transmitting the normal radiance from below to above the sea surface (Mobley 1999).

4. ABOVE-WATER METHODS

The main difficulty with above-water measurements is associated with correcting the observations for the effect of surface waves which introduce significant fluctuations into the glint and reflected skylight components of the surface radiance field. The problem is made more difficult by the presence of clouds which increase the fluctuations and associated uncertainties in the measurements. At present, there are several methods for surface glint correction which were developed for different environmental conditions, i.e., clear or cloudy sky, and Case-1 or Case-2 water. All of the

methods recognize the importance of making surface measurements free of sun glint effects, so the differences in the methods are primarily due to how sky glint contamination is removed from the surface signal.

Some above-water techniques attempt to deal with the negative effects of glint at the point of measurement, like the SIMBAD radiometer (Fougnie et al. 1999a), but most methods attempt to deal with glint explicitly by filtering it out or removing it with a correction algorithm. The Mueller and Austin (1995) SeaWiFS protocol, hereafter referred to as S95, is one of the methods to prescribe a glint filter as part of the method.

The primary difference in the above-water measurement sequences was in the pointing angles. For the SUnSAS and SeaPRISM instruments, the nadir (sea-viewing) and zenith (sky-viewing) angles were varied between 30, 40, and 45°, although 40° was the most common for the former; SIMBAD always used a fixed nadir angle of 45°. The other angle that was varied was the azimuthal angle with respect to the sun. SUnSAS used a large variety of angles between 90–135°, and SeaPRISM always collected data at $\phi \pm 90^\circ$; again, SIMBAD used a fixed angle of $\phi + 135^\circ$.

When the above-water systems were used together, they usually collected data simultaneously with the WiSPER and miniNESS instruments. During each sequence, the following parameters were recorded by the operator(s):

- a) The azimuthal orientation relative to the sun plane, plus the nadir and zenith angles;
- b) The sky conditions around the sun (cloud coverage and haze thickness);
- c) Sea surface conditions in the region observed by the sea-viewing sensor (amount of sun glint and foam, wave height, surface roughness, etc.);
- d) Sky conditions in the region of the sky observed by the sky-viewing sensor (cloud coverage and haze thickness); and
- e) General environmental conditions important to the measurements and not covered above.

All of this information was incorporated (where appropriate) into the various electronic logs kept for each sampling system.

4.1 SUnSAS Protocols

The first revision of the SeaWiFS Ocean Optics Protocols incorporated new protocols in several areas, including expanded protocol descriptions for Case-2 waters and other improvements, as contributed by several members of the SeaWiFS Science Team (Mueller and Austin 1995). The version 1 revision required the following for making above-water radiometric measurements for estimating $L_w(\lambda)$:

1. The radiometer measuring water-leaving radiance should point to the sea surface with an angle of about $\vartheta = 20^\circ$ from nadir and away from the solar azimuth angle (ϕ) by at least 90° , i.e., ϕ' .

2. Foam and floating material must be avoided during measurements, and because of temporal variability due to waves, it is important to record a number of spectra within a period of a few seconds (e.g., 30 spectra within 15 s).
3. Before calculating final mean and standard deviation spectra, outliers should be removed by computing initial estimates of these statistics and rejecting radiance spectra containing values more than 1.5 standard deviations (1.5σ) from the estimated mean (μ).
4. $L_T(\lambda)$ must be corrected for sky glint using measurements of sky radiance, $L_i(\lambda)$, in the direction appropriate for the specular reflection from the sea surface into the sensor. $L_i(\lambda)$ measurements can be made either by looking at a horizontal first surface mirror (a mirror with no layers other than the reflective surface) at the same nadir and azimuth angles used for the $L_T(\lambda)$ observations, or by pointing the radiometer into the sky at a zenith angle equal to the nadir angle of the $L_T(\lambda)$ observations (or as in Fig. 1, $\vartheta' = \pi - \vartheta$) and with the same azimuth angle. The sky glint is removed from $L_T(\lambda)$ using $\rho(\lambda, \vartheta)$ to retrieve the above-water $L_W(\lambda)$ values:

$$\hat{L}_W(\lambda) = L_T(\lambda, \phi', \vartheta) - \rho(\lambda, \vartheta)L_i(\lambda, \phi', \vartheta'). \quad (4)$$

From 11–12 December 1997, the Normalized Remote Sensing Reflectance (NRSR) Workshop was held at the Center for Coastal Physical Oceanography, Old Dominion University [see Hooker et al. (1999) for a summary of the discussions and conclusions regarding above-water measurements agreed to at this meeting]. Radiative transfer simulations of remote sensing reflectance measurements above a wave-roughened surface, which were presented by Mobley (1999), showed the increase with wind speed (and resulting surface wave slope) of sky radiance and sun glint reflectance in total radiance viewed at the sea surface, relative to radiance from beneath the surface. At wind speeds approaching 10 m s^{-1} , the superior nadir (and azimuth) viewing angle was 40° , rather than the 30° used by many of the participants (and the 20° given in the original publication of the S95 protocol). At lower wind speeds and a 40° viewing angle, an effective surface reflectance of $\rho' = 0.028$ was recommended.

Based on the consensus reached at the NRSR Workshop, all of the SUNSAS measurements in the SeaBOARR field campaign used a viewing angle of 40° with respect to the vertical except when specific experiments were executed to vary the viewing angle. Accordingly, the S95 protocol was updated as follows:

$$\hat{L}_W(\lambda) = L_T(\lambda, \phi', \vartheta) - \rho' L_i(\lambda, \phi', \vartheta'). \quad (5)$$

Every effort was made to adhere to these same sampling criteria for the SeaPRISM field commissioning, except a

diversity of nadir, zenith, and azimuthal angles were purposefully incorporated into the prototype unit, so the importance of pointing angles could be assessed.

4.2 SIMBAD Protocols

The efficiency of measuring the polarized components of the marine reflectance to reduce the skylight reflection effect in above-water measurements was presented by Fougnie et al. (1999a). The SIMBAD radiometer was designed to exploit this concept, and was used for calibrating the ocean color spectral bands of the Polarization Detecting Environmental Radiometer (POLDER) satellite sensor (Fougnie et al. 1999b).

SIMBAD measurements need to be made under clear-sky conditions. Cloud coverage must be less than $2/8$ and must not obscure any part of the solar disk. Measurements need to be taken at a nadir angle of 45° and an azimuth angle of 135° relative to the sun plane to avoid the glitter region. This configuration permits minimization of the reflected skylight, as well as residual ocean polarization effects.

When solar radiation enters the Earth's atmosphere, a part of the incident light is attenuated through scattering and absorption processes. The solar irradiance $E(\lambda)$ measured at an observation point (assumed here to be at sea level) can be expressed as a function of the extraterrestrial solar irradiance, $E_0(\lambda)$, as:

$$E(\lambda) = E_0(\lambda)e^{-m\tau(\lambda)}, \quad (6)$$

where τ is the total atmospheric optical thickness and m is the relative air mass computed using the Kasten and Young (1989) formulation.

In the absence of absorption by water vapor and uniformly mixed gases, τ can be decomposed into the sum of the optical thickness of each major optical component of the atmosphere (at the wavelengths of interest):

$$\tau(\lambda) = \tau_R(\lambda) + \tau_O(\lambda) + \tau_A(\lambda), \quad (7)$$

where the R subscript stands for the Rayleigh component (molecules of the air), O for the ozone, and A for the aerosols, respectively.

A Langley calibration was used to determine the $E_0(\lambda)$ value in digital counts at each wavelength, $D_0(\lambda)$. Intercalibrations are also performed at the Goddard Space Flight Center (GSFC) with a reference sun photometer calibrated at Mauna Loa, Hawaii. The aerosol optical thickness (AOT) values are retrieved in the 443, 490, 560, 670, and 870 nm wavelengths using the calibration data and the direct solar measurements performed during the sun-viewing mode:

$$\tau(\lambda) = \frac{\ln[D_0(\lambda)] - \ln[D^L(\lambda) - D_D^L(\lambda)] - \ln\left[\frac{d_0^2}{d^2}\right]}{m(\theta)}, \quad (8)$$

where d_0^2/d^2 provides the Earth–sun distance correction, and $D_D^L(\lambda)$ is the dark voltage in counts for the low-level gain.

The wavelength dependency of the AOT is commonly expressed by the Ångström law (Ångström 1929) as

$$\tau_a(\lambda) = \beta\lambda^{-\alpha}, \quad (9)$$

where α and β are the Ångström exponent and coefficient, respectively. The downward irradiances, $E_d(0^+, \lambda)$, are estimated as follows:

$$E_d(0^+, \lambda) = E_0'(\lambda) t_a(\lambda) (1 + T_C), \quad (10)$$

where $E_0'(\lambda)$ are the solar irradiances (given for each SIMBAD channel in $\text{W m}^{-2} \text{mm}^{-1}$) which are corrected for the solar zenith angle (θ) and the Earth–sun distance using

$$E_0'(\lambda) = E_0(\lambda) \cos(\theta) \left[\frac{d^2}{d_0^2} \right]; \quad (11)$$

$t_a(\lambda)$ is the atmospheric transmittance estimated by (Tanré et al. 1979 and Deschamps et al. 1983)

$$t_a(\lambda) = e^{-m[0.48\tau_R(\lambda) + 0.17\tau_A(\lambda) + \tau_O]}; \quad (12)$$

and T_C is the cloud coverage correction factor, which is computed as

$$T_C = \frac{f_{cc}(1 - e^{-\tau_C/2})}{2 \cos(\theta)}, \quad (13)$$

where f_{cc} is the fractional cloud coverage estimated by the user during the measurements, and τ_C is the cloud optical thickness. For cumulus (cu-type) clouds, τ_C typically has a value of 5.

The observed marine reflectance values, $\rho_0(\lambda)$, are retrieved from measurements taken during the sea-viewing mode:

$$\rho_0(\lambda) = \frac{C_F(\lambda)(D^H(\lambda) - D_D^H(\lambda)) \left[\frac{d^2}{d_0^2} \right]}{\cos(\theta)}, \quad (14)$$

where $D_D^H(\lambda)$ are the dark voltages in the high-level gain, and $C_F(\lambda)$ is the calibration factor in reflectance per numerical counts.

The observed reflectances are then corrected for the skylight reflection to determine the polarized marine reflectance, $\rho_m''(\lambda)$:

$$\rho_m''(\lambda) = \frac{\rho_0''(\lambda) - \rho_c''(\lambda)}{t_a(\lambda)}, \quad (15)$$

where $\rho_c''(\lambda)$ and $\rho_0''(\lambda)$ are the parallel polarized components of the skylight reflectance and the observed reflectance, respectively.

The skylight reflection correction is improved using the 870 nm channel. The reflectance at 870 nm should be zero. The measurement is rejected if the reflectance at 870 nm is greater than a threshold of 0.004. In other cases, the reflectance measured at 870 nm is subtracted from the measurements in the other bands:

$$\rho_m''(\lambda) = \frac{\rho_0''(\lambda) - \rho_c''(\lambda)}{t_a(\lambda)} - \frac{\rho_0''(870) - \rho_c''(870)}{t_a(870)}. \quad (16)$$

This formulation assumes the contribution from clouds and whitecaps are spectrally flat across the 443–870 nm spectral range. The assumption is flawed (Frouin et al. 1996), but the use of the rejection threshold minimizes the error introduced by this assumption.

The marine reflectances, $\rho_m(\lambda)$, are then determined from the polarized marine reflectances using a coefficient, $\alpha_{\text{pol}}(\lambda)$, which characterizes the polarization rate of the marine signal [see Fougnie et al. (1999a) for more details on the assumptions and justifications involved]. This coefficient was determined at Scripps Institution of Oceanography (SIO) at 450 nm from a Monte Carlo numerical model using a polarized phase function (Zaneveld et al. 1974 and Aas 1981):

$$\rho_m(\lambda) = \frac{\rho_m''(\lambda)}{\alpha_{\text{pol}}(\lambda)}, \quad (17)$$

where the viewing angle is omitted for clarity.

The above-water $L_W(\lambda)$ is defined as follows:

$$\hat{L}_W(\lambda) = \frac{\rho_m(\lambda)}{\pi} E_d(0^+, \lambda), \quad (18)$$

where π is introduced in the computation of the reflectances during the calibration process. The spectral normalized water-leaving radiance derived from the above-water radiance measurements is:

$$\hat{L}_{WN}(\lambda) = \frac{\rho_m(\lambda) E_0(\lambda) \left[\frac{d^2}{d_0^2} \right]}{\pi}. \quad (19)$$

4.3 SeaPRISM Protocols

The SeaPRISM methodology was the same as the S95 protocol with the following exceptions:

1. Data were collected at three nadir and zenith angles ($\vartheta = 30, 40, \text{ and } 45^\circ$, and $\vartheta' = 150, 140, \text{ and } 135^\circ$, respectively);
2. Data were collected at two azimuth angles (ϕ^+ and ϕ^-); and
3. Three samples for each wavelength were collected at each pointing location (all three samples for a particular wavelength and pointing angle were collected before the next wavelength was sampled).

Table 3. A summary of some of the environmental characteristics of the AAOT site during the SeaPRISM field commissioning including: the chlorophyll *a* concentration (C_a); the diffuse attenuation coefficient, (K_d); the absorption coefficients due to particulates and yellow substance (a_p and a_y , respectively); and the particulate and yellow substance beam attenuation coefficients (c_p and c_y , respectively). The sea state entries correspond to the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) Code M scale (WMO-N.8). The a , c , and K_d values are all for $\lambda = 490$. The water type classifications are defined according to Loisel and Morel (1998).

Environmental Parameter	SDY 214	SDY†215	SDY 216
Solar Zenith Angle [°]	30.5–55.9	27.6–46.7	27.8–41.4
Wind Speed [m s^{-1}]	2.0–3.3	1.5–2.0	2.4–3.3
Sea Roughness (State)	Calm (1)	Calm (1)	Flat (0)
Cloud Cover (Eighths)	Clear (0/8)	Clear (2/8)	Clear (1/8)
Illumination Stability	Stable	Stable	Stable
C_a [mg m^{-3}]	1.083	0.929	0.700
K_d [m^{-1}]	0.185	0.180	0.184
$a_p + a_y$ [m^{-1}]	0.095	0.124	0.118
$c_p + c_y$ [m^{-1}]	1.095	1.182	1.064
Water Stratification	Almost None	Almost None	Almost None
Water Type†	Case-1	Case-2	Case-2

† The classification for the sequential day of the year (SDY) 214 is on the Case-1 side of the threshold between Case-1 and Case-2 waters.

The diversity of pointing angles were included so a recommendation for an operational system, based on a quantitative analysis, could be made at the end of an extended field assessment (beyond the short field commissioning).

The three samples permit different formulations for calculating (5) based on the minimum and average of the $L_T(\lambda)$ and $L_i(\lambda)$ data. Because foam and clouds produce brighter than usual radiances for $L_T(\lambda)$ and $L_i(\lambda)$, a simple filter for removing these unwanted effects is to use the minimum values for these data. The three viewing angles, also permit three different types of results, so to keep the preliminary results simple, all of the SeaPRISM data presented hereafter used the minimum value technique and a viewing angle of 40° .

5. PRELIMINARY RESULTS

A summary of the environmental characteristics of the AAOT site during the SeaPRISM field commissioning campaign is given in Table 3. The data were collected primarily in near-ideal conditions: low wind speeds with minimal sea states, and clear skies during stable illumination. Although Case-2 conditions predominated, one day was in Case-1 waters, and the diffuse attenuation coefficient values computed from $E_d(z, \lambda)$ data (K_d) for all days were not excessively large and remained fairly constant.

An important difference in data collection was the (half-angle) FOVs of the above-water instruments: 3.0 , 0.6 , and 1.5° for the SUNSAS, SeaPRISM, and SIMBAD radiometers, respectively. All of the above-water instruments were mounted or used from the topmost level of the AAOT. Given that each system had a different FOV, and either different or variable nadir angles were used (sometimes purposefully in special SUNSAS experiments or as part of

the programmed SeaPRISM measurement sequence), the area of sea surface being measured was as large as 4.6 m^2 , and the distance of the measurement area from the tower base varied from approximately 8.8 – 11.4 m . A summary of some important instrument sampling characteristics is presented in Table 4.

Table 4. A summary of some of the sampling characteristics for the above- and in-water systems. The FOV values are half angles for the radiance sensors. The time entries represent the amount of time needed to complete one cast.

Sampling System	FOV [°]	Acquisition	
		Rate [Hz]	Time [s]
WiSPER	10.0	6.0	180
miniNESS	10.0	6.0	18
SUNSAS†	3.0	6.0	180
SeaPRISM	0.6	1.0	180
SIMBAD	1.5	10.0	10

† An incorrect aperture plate was installed in the sky-viewing radiometer which resulted in a 13° FOV for this sensor.

A summary of the data collected with the above- and in-water instruments is presented in Table 5. The data are arranged chronologically, so the temporal overlap between the sampling systems can be more readily discerned. The relative percent difference between an above- and in-water estimate of water-leaving radiance was computed as:

$$\delta^X(\lambda, t_i) = 100 \frac{\bar{L}_W^X(\lambda, t_i) - \bar{L}_W(\lambda, t_i)}{\bar{L}_W(\lambda, t_i)}, \quad (20)$$

where t_i is the time of the measurement, and X is the code for the above-water data collection method (SP for

Table 5. A summary of the SUnSAS, SeaPRISM, SIMBAD, WiSPER, and miniNESS deployment logs. Each entry is composed of a cast number (or name) followed by a temporal range denoting the start and stop times of each cast (the miniNESS entry gives just the start time, because these casts lasted less than 1 min). The reference entry for WiSPER is for the data collected to establish the ratio of the global to indirect solar irradiance. All times are given as a function of the SDY in Greenwich Mean Time (GMT).

<i>SDY</i>	<i>SUnSAS</i>	<i>SeaPRISM</i>	<i>SIMBAD</i>	<i>WiSPER Profiler and Reference</i>	<i>miniNESS</i>
214			1 1216–1223		P60S1A 1217 P60S1B 1218 P60S1C 1219 P60S1D 1220 P60S1E 1222 P60S1F 1225 P60S1G 1228 P60S1H 1229 P60S1I 1230
215				W60S2A 0713–0721	P60S2A 0716 P60S2B 0717 P60S2C 0718 P60S2D 0720 P60S2E 0722 P60S2F 0724 P60S2G 0724 P60S2H 0725 P60S2I 0726
	1 0813–0816	1 0810–0813	2 0810–0814	W60S3A 0809–0815	P60S3A 0811 P60S3B 0812 P60S3C 0814 P60S3D 0815
	2 0818–0821	2 0818–0821	3 0818–0822	W60S3B 0816–0823	P60S3E 0817 P60S3F 0818 P60S3G 0819 P60S3H 0822
	3 0828–0831 4 0832–0835	3 0829–0832	4 0828–0833	W60S3C 0830–0837 W60R2A 0830	P60S3I 0831 P60S3J 0833 P60S3K 0834 P60S3L 0836 P60S3M 0839 P60S3N 0842 P60S3O 0843
	5 0837–0840	4 0835–0838	5 0836–0841	W60S3D 0837–0845	P60S3P 0853 P60S3Q 0855 P60S3R 0856 P60S3S 0858 P60S3T 0859 P60S3U 0901 P60S3V 0902 P60S3W 0903
	6 0841–0844	5 0841–0844			
	7 0852–0855	6 0852–0855	6 0850–0855	W60S3E 0850–0857	
	8 0856–0859		7 0857–0900	W60S3F 0857–0904	
	9 0901–0904	7 0859–0902			
	10 0905–0908 11 0914–0917 12 0918–0921 13 0922–0925	8 0905–0908 9 0915–0918	8 0905–0909		
		10 0922–0925	9 0921–0949	W60S3G 0922–0929 W60R3A 0925	P60S3X 0923 P60S3Y 0926

Table 5. (cont.) A summary of the SUnSAS, SeaPRISM, SIMBAD, WiSPER, and miniNESS deployment logs.

SDY	SUnSAS	SeaPRISM	SIMBAD	WiSPER Profiler and Reference	miniNESS	
215	14 0927-0930	11 0929-0932			P60S3Z 0927	
	15 0931-0934					
	16 0935-0938	12 0936-0939		W60S3H 0937-0944		
	17 0940-0943					
	18 0945-0948	13 0943-0946			W60R3B 0948	
		14 0949-0952				
	19 1005-1008	15 1005-1008	10 1004-1011	W60S4A 1005-1012	W60R3C 1009	P60S4A 1007
	20 1009-1012					P60S4B 1009
						P60S4C 1010
	21 1013-1016	16 1012-1015	11 1013-1017	W60S4B 1012-1019		P60S4D 1013
						P60S4E 1014
						P60S4F 1016
	22 1018-1021	17 1021-1024	12 1019-1022			
	23 1028-1031	18 1028-1031	13 1027-1034	W60S4C 1028-1035		P60S4G 1029
						P60S4H 1031
	24 1033-1036	19 1035-1038		W60S4D 1035-1042		P60S4I 1034
						P60S4J 1036
						P60S4K 1038
						P60S4L 1039
	25 1045-1048	20 1045-1048	14 1045-1052	W60S4E 1047-1054	W60R3D 1052	P60S4M 1049
	26 1050-1053	21 1052-1055				P60S4N 1052
						P60S4O 1053
	27 1055-1058		15 1055-1058	W60S4F 1054-1101		P60S4P 1057
						P60S4Q 1058
	28 1100-1103	22 1100-1103	16 1100-1104			P60S4R 1100
	29 1109-1112	23 1110-1113	17 1108-1112	W60S4G 1108-1115		P60S4S 1110
						P60S4T 1112
						P60S4U 1113
	30 1114-1117		18 1114-1117	W60S4H 1116-1123		P60S4V 1118
	31 1119-1122	24 1117-1120	19 1119-1126		W60R4A 1122	P60S4W 1119
						P60S4X 1121
		32 1124-1127	25 1124-1127			
				W60R4B 1144		
				W60R4C 1207		
				W60R4D 1229		
216	33 0844-0847	26 0844-0847		W60S5A 0843-0850	P60S5A 0845	
	34 0848-0851		20 0848-0856	W60S5B 0850-0856	P60S5B 0851	
					P60S5C 0852	
	35 0853-0856	27 0852-0855			P60S5D 0853	
					P60S5E 0854	
					P60S5F 0855	
	36 0857-0900	28 0859-0902	21 0857-0901			
	37 0906-0909	29 0907-0910	22 0906-0914	W60S5C 0907-0913		
	38 0910-0913				P60S5G 0909	
					P60S5H 0910	
				P60S5I 0912		
				P60S5J 0915		
				P60S5K 0916		
	39 0915-0918	30 0913-0916		W60S5D 0913-0920	P60S5L 0917	

Table 5. (cont.) A summary of the SUnSAS, SeaPRISM, SIMBAD, WiSPER, and miniNESS deployment logs.

<i>SDY</i>	<i>SUnSAS</i>	<i>SeaPRISM</i>	<i>SIMBAD</i>	<i>WiSPER Profiler and Reference</i>	<i>miniNESS</i>
216	40 0919-0922	31 0919-0922	23 0918-0922		P60S5M 0919
		32 0926-0929			
	41 0936-0939	33 0939-0942			
	42 0943-0946				
	43 0946-0949	34 0945-0948			
	44 0951-0954	35 0951-0954			
	45 0955-0958	36 0958-1001	24 0955-0959	W60S5E 0954-1001	P60S5N 0956 P60S5O 0957 P60S5P 0959
	46 1005-1008	37 1006-1009	25 1001-1007	W60S5F 1001-1008 W60R5A 1001	P60S5Q 1003 P60S5R 1004 P60S5S 1005 P60S5T 1007
	47 1009-1012		26 1008-1012		
	48 1014-1017	38 1013-1016	27 1013-1016		
	49 1018-1020	39 1019-1022			
	50 1023-1026	40 1026-1029			
	51 1041-1044	41 1042-1045	28 1043-1052	W60S6A 1041-1048	W60R5B 1023 P60S6A 1042 P60S6B 1044 P60S6C 1045 P60S6D 1046 P60S6E 1050 P60S6F 1051 P60S6G 1052
	52 1046-1049	42 1048-1051		W60S6B 1048-1056	
	53 1050-1053				
	54 1054-1057	43 1055-1058	29 1054-1058		
	55 1103-1106	44 1105-1108	30 1103-1106	W60S6C 1104-1110	P60S6H 1105 P60S6I 1107 P60S6J 1108 P60S6K 1110 P60S6L 1113 P60S6M 1114 P60S6N 1115 P60S6O 1117
	56 1108-1111	45 1111-1114	31 1108-1111	W60S6D 1111-1118	
			32 1119-1123		
	57 1124-1127		33 1124-1127	W60S6E 1124-1131 W60R5C 1127	P60S6P 1127 P60S6Q 1128
	58 1129-1132	46 1127-1130	34 1129-1132		P60S6R 1129 P60S6S 1133 P60S6T 1134 P60S6U 1136 P60S6V 1137 P60S6W 1139 P60S6X 1141
	59 1133-1136	47 1134-1137	35 1134-1138		
	60 1138-1141		36 1138-1142		
		48 1143-1146			
	61 1147-1150		37 1147-1151		
	62 1151-1154	49 1150-1153	38 1151-1154		
				W60R6A 1200 W60R6B 1220 W60R6C 1247	

SeaPRISM and SB for SIMBAD). For the purposes of preliminary analyses, the normalization is made with respect to the WiSPER in-water data, because the objective is to compare the two above-water methods against an independent data set.

To preserve the dispersion of the data during averaging, average percent differences across all coincident measurements were computed using absolute percent differences:

$$\bar{\delta}^X(\lambda) = \frac{100}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{|\hat{L}_W^X(\lambda, t_i) - \tilde{L}_W(\lambda, t_i)|}{\tilde{L}_W(\lambda, t_i)}, \quad (21)$$

where N is the total number of measurements. The spectral average of the $\bar{\delta}^X(\lambda)$ values was computed as

$$\bar{\psi}^X = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M \bar{\delta}^X(\lambda_j), \quad (22)$$

where M is the number of channels.

A comparison of water-leaving radiances derived from WiSPER (\tilde{L}_W), SeaPRISM (\hat{L}_W^{SP}), and SIMBAD (\hat{L}_W^{SB}) data are presented in Fig. 13. Three channels (one blue, one green, and one red) common to all three instruments are shown. The SeaPRISM data shows the best agreement with respect to the WiSPER data. The blue-green SIMBAD data are clearly shifted away from the 1:1 line, but the slope of the shift is correct, so the difference is more indicative of a bias.

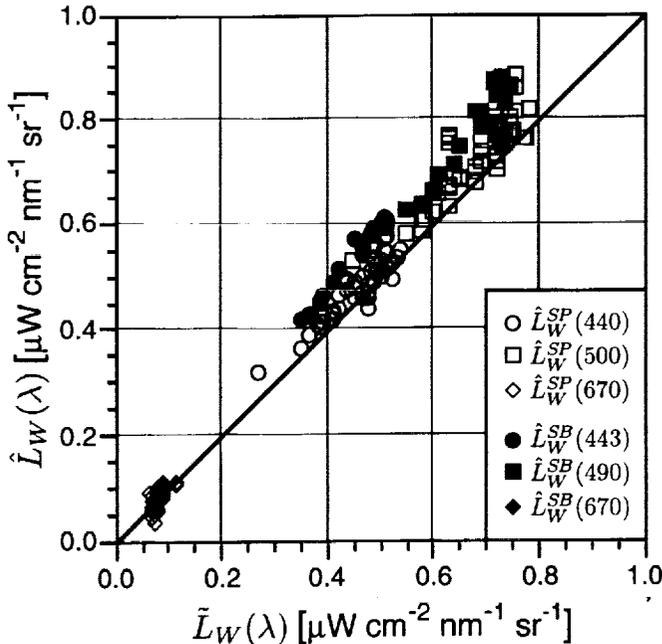


Fig. 13. A comparison of water-leaving radiances between WiSPER, and the SeaPRISM and SIMBAD instruments.

One source for a bias is in the calibration of the instruments. In a previous intercomparison at the AAOT (Hooker et al. 2000), the instruments involved were intercalibrated using a second generation SeaWiFS Quality Monitor (Hooker et al. 1999). This capability was not available for this field campaign. The SIMBAD and SUNSAS instruments were calibrated separately and not intercompared in a laboratory setting; the SeaPRISM and WiSPER sensors, however, were calibrated together and, thus, intercompared in the laboratory. Another source of bias is the slightly different wavelengths for each instrument (Fig. 13 inset panel and Table 1).

Histograms of δ values for the Fig. 13 SeaPRISM and SIMBAD data set are given in Figs. 14a and 14b, respectively; spectral averages are given in the inset panels. The SeaPRISM data show the best distribution with respect to the central bin with a well defined and shaped peak centered on the 3–5% bin. The SIMBAD histogram is less defined and centered across the 15–17% and 17–19% bins. The $\bar{\psi}^{SP}$ and $\bar{\psi}^{SB}$ spectral averages for the differences are 8.6 and 13.9%, respectively.

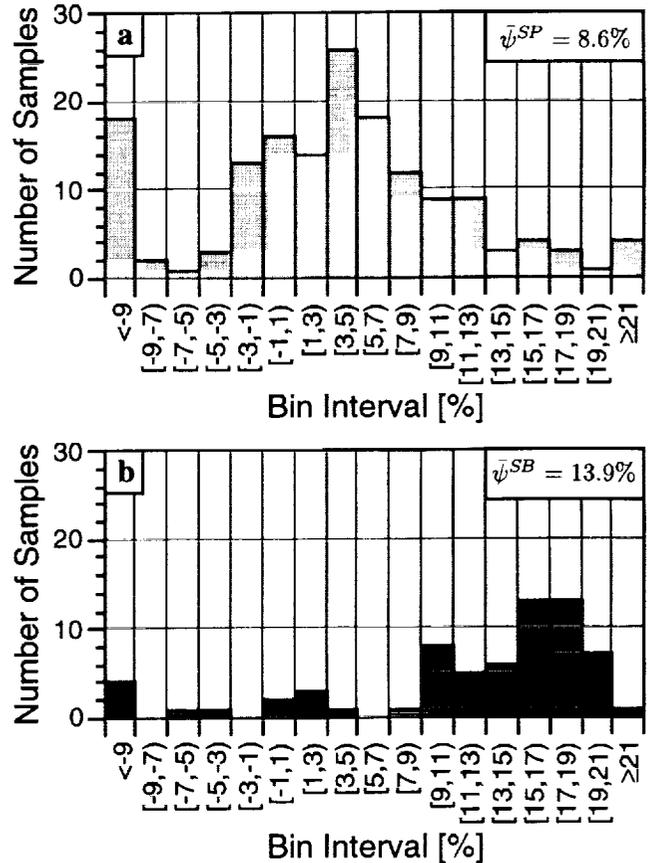


Fig. 14. Histograms of the relative percent differences (δ) between water-leaving radiances derived from WiSPER and a) SeaPRISM data, and b) SIMBAD data.

Much of the variance (and outliers) in the SeaPRISM differences comes from the red channel, whereas the reverse

is true for the SIMBAD differences. A spectral analysis shows $\bar{\delta}^{SP}(440) = 4.5\%$, $\bar{\delta}^{SP}(500) = 5.9\%$, and $\bar{\delta}^{SP}(670) = 15.6\%$; the corresponding values for the SIMBAD data are 17.7, 15.1, and 8.9%. So the SeaPRISM blue-green channels intercompare with WiSPER at approximately the 5% level, but the SIMBAD blue-green channels intracompare at about the 16% level.

The spectral analysis of the data is one of several possible approaches to the evaluation process. Another technique is to restrict the analysis to $\bar{L}_W(\lambda)$ band ratios, i.e., the 440 and 500 nm ratio for SeaPRISM, and the 443 and 490 ratio for SIMBAD. There are three reasons for considering such an option:

- Many ocean color algorithms use band ratios as the primary input variable (O'Reilly et al. 1998);
- Differences in needed (but not applied) corrections (e.g., tower shading) are somewhat mitigated by the normalization process; and
- Spectral deviations might be persistently biased, that is, parts of the spectrum might be shifted in the same direction and magnitude, so a ratio or normalized analysis might be more satisfactory than a spectral analysis.

The latter is particularly relevant to the above-water methods, because glint contamination elevates broad sections of the spectrum.

The relative percent difference between the band ratios (BR) of an above- and in-water estimate of water-leaving radiance was computed as:

$$\delta_{BR}^X(t_i) = 100 \frac{\frac{\hat{L}_W(\lambda_1, t_i)}{\hat{L}_W(\lambda_2, t_i)} - \frac{\bar{L}_W(\lambda_1, t_i)}{\bar{L}_W(\lambda_2, t_i)}}{\frac{\bar{L}_W(\lambda_1, t_i)}{\bar{L}_W(\lambda_2, t_i)}}, \quad (23)$$

where $\lambda_1 = 490 \text{ nm}$ and $\lambda_2 = 555 \text{ nm}$. Averages were formed using the absolute values of $\delta_{BR}^X(t_i)$:

$$\bar{\delta}_{BR}^X = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |\delta_{BR}^X(t_i)|, \quad (24)$$

where, again, the summation is over the total number of measurements (and spectral averages were not computed, because they are not meaningful).

Figure 15 presents the histograms for the percent differences between the SeaPRISM and SIMBAD band ratio data with respect to the WiSPER band ratio data, δ_{BR}^{SP} and δ_{BR}^{SB} , respectively; absolute difference averages across all the data are given in the inset panels. Although the SeaPRISM results are improved by about a factor of two, in terms of the averages, the SIMBAD results are improved by more than a factor of four. Although both histograms

are much improved with no appreciable outliers, the SIMBAD histogram shows a significantly better shape.

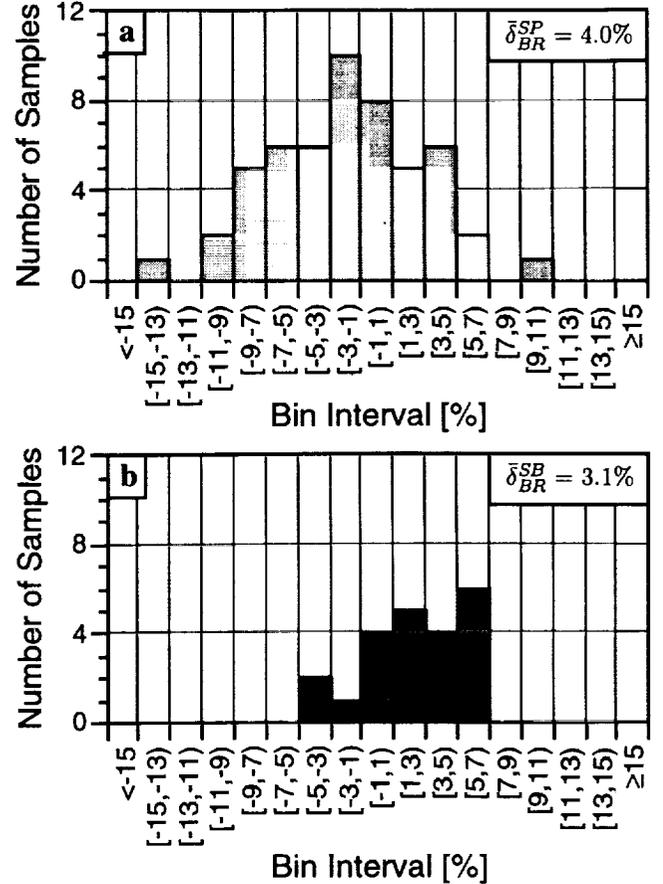


Fig. 15. Histograms of the relative percent difference between the ratio in water-leaving radiances derived from WiSPER and a) SeaPRISM data, δ_{BR}^{SP} ; and b) SIMBAD data, δ_{BR}^{SB} .

6. DISCUSSION

The primary objective of the SeaPRISM field commissioning was to demonstrate the sea-viewing measurement scenario was possible, and to intercompare the water-leaving radiances from SeaPRISM with alternative above- and in-water systems (SIMBAD or SUnSAS and WiSPER, respectively). To provide a quick look at the data collected during the field commissioning, only a portion of the data collected in the experiment was analyzed.

The preliminary results from this effort indicate the following:

- The agreement between SeaPRISM and WiSPER water-leaving radiances were close to the 5% level in the blue and green parts of the spectrum, but closer to 15% in the red;
- The SIMBAD spectral comparisons with WiSPER water-leaving radiances were significantly worse (a little more than 15%) than SeaPRISM, although,

the band ratio comparisons were better (approximately 3% for SIMBAD and 4% for SeaPRISM); and

3. Although many of the environmental parameters during the field commissioning were close to ideal (low wind speeds, clear skies, etc.), Case-2 conditions predominated, so agreement at the 5% level and below represents very good agreement.

The last point is important, because the initial data set was composed of only three days of sampling, and these might not be representative of the average capabilities of the SeaPRISM instrument (particularly over an annual cycle which is the standard recalibration interval for the AERONET sun photometers). It is also important to remember the results presented here were for a single viewing angle (40°) and only one processing scheme (the minimum value technique was used).

The excellent preliminary results suggest an extended assessment is appropriate, and some requirements for a fully operational system are worth considering:

- a) A maximum number of channels, at the appropriate center wavelengths, for ocean color observations are needed;
- b) Programmable viewing angles to satisfy the testing or operational use of different measurement protocols;
- c) The collection of a maximum number of sea-viewing values (per measurement sequence and per channel), to ensure statistical robustness for rejecting measurements contaminated by wave, cloud, and sun-glint effects and to maximize the signal-to-noise ratio (particularly in the blue part of the spectrum);
- d) Characterization of instrument offsets (dark values) during each measurement sequence; and
- e) Automatic transmission of the acquired data over a satellite link (all of the field commissioning data were stored in SeaPRISM and then transferred to a PC through a serial interface).

Although there are limitations associated with some of these recommendations with respect to an automated network, like AERONET, most of the problems have simple and practical solutions.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The SeaPRISM field commissioning could not have been executed at the high level that was achieved without the competent contributions of the AAOT crew: Armando and Daniele Penzo, and Narciso and Gianni Zennaro. The logistics were substantially more involved than the usual CoASTS field campaigns, so the enthusiastic assistance from the CNR scientific staff led by Luigi Alberotanza was essential. In particular, Pierluigi Cova was responsible for the CTD profiles as well as the meteorological data collection, and Sandro Vianello was responsible for water filtration.

Special thanks are also due several of the JRC scientists including Dirk van der Linde for the support provided in preparing the optical devices for deployment and the TSM analyses, Cristina Targa for the HPLC analyses, and Stefania Grossi for the dissolved and particulate matter absorption analyses. The JRC and CNR participation in the experiment was mainly supported by the European Commission through contract MAS3-CT97-0087.

APPENDICES

A. The SeaPRISM Field Team

Appendix A

SeaPRISM Field Team

The SeaPRISM team members are presented alphabetically.

Sean Bailey
Futuretech Corporation
NASA/GSFC/Code 970.2
Bldg. 28, Room W145
Greenbelt, Maryland 20771
Voice: 301-286-3931
Fax: 301-286-0268
Net: sbailey@seabass.gsfc.nasa.gov

Jean-François Berthon
JRC/SAI/ME T.P. 272
Ispra, I-21020 (VA)
ITALY
Voice: 39-0-332-789-934
Fax: 39-0-332-789-034
Net: jean-francois.berthon@jrc.it

Pierluigi Cova and
Sandro Vianello
CNR/ISDGM
San Polo 1364
I-30125 Venice
ITALY
Voice: 39-0-41-521-6840
Fax: 39-0-41-260-2340
Net: claudia@neuro.isdgm.ve.cnr.it

Stanford Hooker
NASA/GSFC/Code 970.2
Bldg. 28, Room W126
Greenbelt, Maryland 20771
Voice: 301-286-9503
Fax: 301-286-0268
Net: stan@ardbeg.gsfc.nasa.gov

Dirk van der Linde
JRC/SAI/ME T.P. 272
I-21020 Ispra (VA)
ITALY
Voice: 39-0-332-785-362
Fax: 39-0-332-789-034
Net: dirk.vanderlinde@jrc.it

Christophe Pietras
SAIC General Sciences Corporation
NASA/GSFC/Code 970.2
Bldg. 28, Room W119
Greenbelt, Maryland 20771
Voice: 301-286-9892
Fax: 301-286-0268
Net: pietras@simbios.gsfc.nasa.gov

Giuseppe Zibordi
 JRC/SAI/ME T.P. 272
 I-21020 Ispra (VA)
 ITALY
 Voice: 39-0-332-785-902
 Fax: 39-0-332-789-034
 Net: giuseppe.zibordi@jrc.it

GLOSSARY

AAOT *Acqua Alta* Oceanographic Tower
 A/D Analog-to-Digital
 AERONET Aerosol Robotic Network
 AMT Atlantic Meridional Transect
 AMT-8 The Eighth AMT Cruise
 AOP Apparent Optical Property
 AOT Aerosol Optical Thickness
 ASCII American Standard Code for Information Interchange
 CDOM Colored Dissolved Organic Matter
 CNR *Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche* (National Research Council)
 CoASTS Coastal Atmosphere and Sea Time Series
 CTD Conductivity, Temperature, and Depth
 DATA Not an acronym, but a designator for the Satellite, Inc., series of power and telemetry units.
 DIR Not an acronym, but a designator for the Satellite, Inc., series of directional units.
 FOV Field of View
 GMT Greenwich Mean Time
 GPS Global Positioning System
 GSFC Goddard Space Flight Center
 HPLC High Performance Liquid Chromatography
 JCR RRS *James Clark Ross*
 JRC Joint Research Centre
 LoCNESS Low-Cost NASA Environmental Sampling System
 miniNESS miniature NASA Environmental Sampling System
 MOBY Marine Optical Buoy
 NASA National Aeronautics and Space Administration
 NRSR Normalized Remote Sensing Reflectance
 OCI Ocean Color Irradiance
 OCR Ocean Color Radiance
 PC Personal Computer
 PM Particulate Matter
 POLDER Polarization Detecting Environmental Radiometer
 RRS Royal Research Ship
 RSMAS Rosenstiel School for Marine and Atmospheric Science
 S/N Serial Number
 SeaBOARR SeaWiFS Bio-Optical Algorithm Round-Robin
 SeaBOARR-98 The First SeaBOARR (held in 1998)
 SeaBOARR-99 The Second SeaBOARR (held in 1999)
 SeaPRISM SeaWiFS Photometer Revision for Incident Surface Measurement
 SeaWiFS Sea-viewing Wide Field-of-view Sensor

SDY Sequential Day of the Year
 SIMBAD Satellite Validation for Marine Biology and Aerosol Determination
 SIO Scripps Institution of Oceanography
 SUNSAS SeaWiFS Underway Surface Acquisition System
 THOR Three-Headed Optical Recorder
 TSM Total Suspended Matter
 WiSPER Wire-Stabilized Profiling Environmental Radiometer
 WMO World Meteorological Organization

SYMBOLS

$a(\lambda)$ The absorption coefficient of seawater.
 a_p The absorption coefficient due to particulates.
 a_y The absorption coefficient due to yellow substance.
 BR A code for identifying a band ratio calculation.
 c_p The beam attenuation coefficient due to particulates.
 c_y The beam attenuation coefficient due to yellow substance.
 C_a The concentration of chlorophyll *a*.
 $C_F(\lambda)$ The (spectral) calibration factor in reflectance per counts.
 d^2 The Earth-sun distance of the day.
 d_0^2 The Earth-sun distance averaged over the year.
 $D^H(\lambda)$ The voltage in counts for the high-level gain.
 $D_D^H(\lambda)$ The dark voltage in counts for the high-level gain.
 $D^L(\lambda)$ The voltage in counts for the low-level gain.
 $D_D^L(\lambda)$ The dark voltage in counts for the low-level gain.
 $D_0(\lambda)$ The extraterrestrial solar spectral irradiance in digital counts.
 $E(\lambda)$ The direct solar spectral irradiance.
 $E_0(\lambda)$ The extraterrestrial solar spectral irradiance.
 $E'_0(\lambda)$ The solar irradiances corrected for the solar zenith angle (θ) and the Earth-sun distance.
 $E_d(\lambda)$ The downward spectral irradiance.
 $E_d(0^+, \lambda)$ The downward spectral irradiance right above the sea surface.
 $E_i(\lambda)$ The indirect (diffuse) spectral irradiance.
 $E_u(\lambda)$ The upwelled spectral irradiance.
 f_{cc} The fractional cloud coverage.
 i A numeric index.
 j A numeric index.
 $K_d(\lambda)$ The diffuse attenuation coefficient calculated from $E_d(z, \lambda)$ data.
 $K_u(\lambda)$ The diffuse attenuation coefficient calculated from $L_u(z, \lambda)$ data.
 $L_i(\lambda)$ The sky (indirect) spectral radiance.
 $L_T(\lambda)$ The total spectral radiance (for $z = 0^+$, right above the sea surface).
 $L_u(\lambda)$ The upwelled spectral radiance.
 $L_W(\lambda)$ The water-leaving spectral radiance.
 $\bar{L}_W(\lambda)$ The in-water $L_W(\lambda)$ value.
 $\tilde{L}_W(\lambda)$ The water-leaving spectral radiance derived from in-water data.
 $\hat{L}_W(\lambda)$ The water-leaving spectral radiance derived from above-water radiance measurements.
 $\hat{L}_W^X(\lambda)$ The water-leaving spectral radiance derived from above-water method *X*.

The SeaWiFS Photometer Revision for Incident Surface Measurement (SeaPRISM) Field Commissioning

$L_{WN}(\lambda)$ The spectral normalized water-leaving radiance.
 $\hat{L}_{WN}(\lambda)$ The spectral normalized water-leaving radiance derived from above-water radiance measurements.
 $m(\theta)$ The relative air mass.
 M The total number of channels.
 $n_w(\lambda)$ The refractive index of seawater.
 N The total number of measurements.
 SB A code for identifying SIMBAD data.
 SP A code for identifying SeaPRISM data.
 $t_a(\lambda)$ The atmospheric transmittance (diffuse and direct).
 t_i The time of a measurement.
 T_C The cloud coverage correction factor.
 x The abscissa.
 X The above-water method (either SP or SB).
 y The ordinate.
 z The vertical (depth and altitude) coordinate.
 z_0 Center depth.
 α The Ångström exponent.
 $\alpha_{pol}(\lambda)$ A coefficient for characterizing the polarization rate of the marine signal.
 β The Ångström coefficient.
 δz $z - z_0$.
 $\delta^X(\lambda)$ The relative percent difference between above-water method X and an in-water (WiSPER) method.
 δ_{BR}^X The relative percent difference between band ratios for above-water method X and an in-water (WiSPER) method.
 $\bar{\delta}^X(\lambda)$ The average spectral percent difference across all coincident measurements computed using absolute differences for above-water method X .
 $\bar{\delta}_{BR}^X$ The average (absolute) percent difference between the band ratio for above-water method X and an in-water (WiSPER) method.
 Δz The integration half interval ($\Delta z \approx 4-10$ m).
 θ The solar zenith angle.
 ϑ The radiometer pointing (nadir) angle with respect to the vertical axis.
 ϑ' $\pi - \vartheta$.
 λ Wavelength (the spectral coordinate).
 λ_i An individual channel (wavelength).
 λ_1 The first wavelength in a band ratio (490 nm).
 λ_2 The second wavelength in a band ratio (555 nm).
 μ The estimated mean.
 ρ' The effective surface reflectance of seawater (0.028).
 $\rho(\lambda, \vartheta)$ The Fresnel reflectance of seawater.
 $\rho_0(\lambda)$ The observed marine reflectance.
 $\rho_m(\lambda)$ The marine reflectance.
 $\rho_0''(\lambda)$ The polarized component of the skylight reflectance.
 $\rho_c''(\lambda)$ The polarized component of the observed reflectance.
 $\rho_m''(\lambda)$ The polarized marine reflectance.
 σ The standard deviation.
 $\tau(\lambda)$ The spectral total optical thickness.
 $\tau_A(\lambda)$ The spectral aerosol optical thickness.
 $\tau_C(\lambda)$ The spectral cloud optical thickness.
 $\tau_O(\lambda)$ The spectral ozone optical thickness.
 $\tau_R(\lambda)$ The spectral Rayleigh optical thickness.

ϕ The solar azimuth angle.
 ϕ' $\phi \pm \frac{\pi}{2}$ (90° away from the sun in either direction, i.e., ϕ^+ or ϕ^-).
 ϕ^- $\phi - \frac{\pi}{2}$.
 ϕ^+ $\phi + \frac{\pi}{2}$.
 φ The perturbations (or tilts) in alignment away from z .
 $\bar{\psi}^X$ The spectral average of the $\bar{\delta}(\lambda)$ values for above-water method X .

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13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 words)

This report documents the scientific activities that took place at the *Acqua Alta* Oceanographic Tower (AAOT) in the northern Adriatic Sea off the coast of Italy from 2-6 August 1999. The ultimate objective of the field campaign was to evaluate the capabilities of a new instrument called the SeaWiFS Photometer Revision for Incident Surface Measurements (SeaPRISM). SeaPRISM is based on a CE-318 sun photometer made by CIMEL Electronique (Paris, France). The CE-318 is an automated, robotic system which measures the direct sun irradiance plus the sky radiance in the sun plane and in the almucantar plane. The data are transmitted over a satellite link, and this remote operation capability has made the device very useful for atmospheric measurements. The revision to the CE-318 that makes the instrument potentially useful for SeaWiFS calibration and validation activities is to include a capability for measuring the radiance leaving the sea surface in wavelengths suitable for the determination of chlorophyll *a* concentration. The initial evaluation of this new capability involved above- and in-water measurement protocols. An intercomparison of the water-leaving radiances derived from SeaPRISM and an in-water system showed the overall spectral agreement was approximately 8.6%, but the blue-green channels intercompared at the 5% level. A blue-green band ratio comparison was at the 4% level.

14. SUBJECT TERMS

SeaWiFS, Oceanography, Calibration, Validation, Photometer, SeaPRISM, Field Commissioning, Incident Surface Measurement, Instruments, miniNESS, WiSPER, SIMBAD, SUnSAS, In-water, Above-water

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